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THE HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARY

THE HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARY

ITS FUNCTION IN EDUCATION

BY

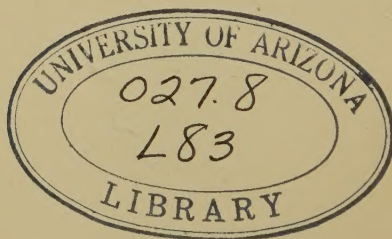
HANNAH LOGASA

LIBRARIAN OF THE UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL,
THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.



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TO
C. C. CERTAIN
TO WHOSE UNTIRING EFFORTS
THE SCHOOL LIBRARY MOVEMENT
OWES ITS GROWTH

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PREFACE

One of the phenomenal developments in the field of modern secondary education has been the amazing increase in the number of high-school libraries—an increase that has been coincident with, and in large measure a result of, the changing ideas of the purpose and methods of high-school teaching. The tendency toward the adoption of progressive methods of classroom instruction has made the library an indispensable part of the equipment of the modern high school. It has also necessitated a change in the point of view and methods of many high-school libraries that were established under the old school conditions. Hence it has been felt that just now there is a decided need for a formulation of the function which the library has in the high school to-day.

Of the many books examined by the author on the various phases of secondary education, few were found which contained any great amount of material on the high-school library. The very brief treatment given to the subject in the few books on education in which the library was discussed precluded any adequate presentation of the subject. Of the books on the high-school library written by authors in the field, the majority stressed the technical or experimental side of library work. There is at present little material available on the functional side of library service. Therefore, this book was expressly designed to provide material for courses in education, and for use in library training courses, its chief purpose being to show the function of the library in secondary schools, and to state the underlying educational principles upon which modern high-school library service is based. An attempt is also

made to show both the direct and indirect contributions of the library to the objectives of education, in theory and in practice.

From the point of view of function, technical library science is merely a means to an end. The library devices which make it possible to give prompt and accurate library service are, of course, important in the attainment of this end. In this book, therefore, the place of these devices in library organization and administration will be indicated, but will not be treated fully. There are already books on the market that treat that phase of library work. For the same reason book lists suitable for pupils of high-school age have not been included. They too, are only a means to an end, or purpose, of the high-school library service. Readers who wish book lists should consult the excellent material published by the American Library Association, The National Council of Teachers of English, etc.¹

"Every man is a debtor to his profession." The author acknowledges her great indebtedness to Prof. F. W. Johnson of Teachers College, Columbia University, who was one of the early school administrators to see the possibilities in high-school library service, and who, as principal of the University of Chicago High School, made conditions favorable for the library to function; to Morton Snyder of the Progressive Education Association, who made possible the further extension of library service; to Prof. W. C. Reavis of the University of Chicago who has suggested to the writer many new ways of obtaining library and classroom coöperation; to Miss Irene Warren, formerly librarian of the School of Education of the University of Chicago, who had the broad vision of school library usefulness, and to Miss Mary E. Hall, the pioneer school librarian, who in her work exemplified the best type of library service.

H. L.

¹ See Appendix III for selected list of book lists.

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THE HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARY

CHAPTER I

OBJECTIVES

Education has always had aims, ideals, and purposes, but for a long time they were changing, idealistic, vague, and unformulated. Educators had a sort of religious awe in their hearts toward their profession, conceiving it as a handing on of tradition. They were deeply conscious of their mission in the world, as instruments, so they thought, by means of which culture was to be disseminated. To have the responsibility of the youth of the nation during their formative years made teaching something higher even than a profession—it made of it almost a sacred calling. At teachers' meetings, consideration of the ideals of the teaching profession occupied much of the discussion time. Orally formulated, these ideals were in reality what we now term the aims and purposes of education.

Within the last two decades, the secondary school began to develop so rapidly that building programs and the teaching faculty could not keep pace with the increase in the number of pupils. No longer were the advantages of secondary education reserved only for the few who wished to go to college. A horde of young people were in a financial position to continue their education after the elementary level had been passed. Many of these pupils had a truly intellectual desire for a higher education; many more of them were interested in secondary education as a foundation

for an industrial or for a commercial career; and still more of them went to high school because it was the thing to do. The democratic growth of education for youth which the primary school had already witnessed now extended into the high school. In former years an advertisement for a position read, "Wanted: a boy with an elementary-school diploma." At the present time, many business houses and industrial concerns advertise for workers who have had high-school training.

Therefore, with the steadily increasing number of pupils who attended the secondary schools for such widely diversified motives, it was found that the vague idealistic platitudes so long uttered by educators would no longer suffice. The problem of educating the greatly augmented number of pupils, with the attendant increased cost of education, made it necessary to formulate definite answers to a few questions asked by educators, by parents, and by taxpayers: What is secondary education trying to do? What is the goal for education as a whole, and for the courses in the curriculum? What are the pupils supposed to get out of their high-school course? What preparation for life does the high-school course give? Thus arose the definition of what we now call objectives for the high school.

Educators were the first ones who tried to formulate objectives for secondary education. Colvin gave this as the aim for secondary education: "The most generally recognized aim of the American secondary school is to train boys and girls to become useful members of the community in which they live; in other words, to promote good citizenship in the broadest sense of the term."¹ A report of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education appointed by the National Education Association formulated

¹S. S. Colvin, *An Introduction to High School Teaching* (New York, Macmillan Co., 1922), p. 5.

the following objectives: (1) health, (2) command of fundamental processes, (3) worthy home membership, (4) vocation, (5) citizenship, (6) worthy use of leisure, (7) ethical character.² An examination of the objectives given above will show the growing tendency to make the objectives more particular and definite. Too broad generalization, teachers felt, resulted in vagueness. The need was for more minute analysis of objectives, for dividing each and every objective into its component parts. This method is recommended by Dr. Franklin Bobbitt, and is carried out by him in his book on curriculum studies.³ Specific skills which enter into objectives can be formulated. These give definite clues to the subject matter for teaching these skills, and divide the objectives into parts definite enough so that the goal to be reached can be kept in sight by the teacher.

All who are interested in secondary education will recognize the value of the objectives formulated by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. They give something to work with, even though they are vague, as Professor Bobbitt has pointed out.⁴ He recommends an itemized statement of specific habits, attitudes, and the evaluation which are back of the habits. Teachers of the various subjects in the high-school curriculum will find it necessary to make objectives for the particular subject matter taught, with reference to the objectives of education as a whole. There are, therefore, in every secondary school several sets of objectives which guide in the education of the pupils. Enumerated, and analyzed, they make up the definite aims which the high school tries to realize by means of its classroom instruction.

² United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 35, 1918.

³ Franklin Bobbitt, *How to Make a Curriculum* (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924).

⁴ Franklin Bobbitt, "The Objectives of Secondary Education," *School Review*, Vol. 28, December, 1920, pp. 738-749.

"The ideal of a democracy . . . involves, on the one hand, specialization, whereby individuals and groups of individuals become effective in the various vocations, and in other fields of human endeavor, and, on the other hand, unification, whereby the members of that democracy may obtain those common ideas, common ideals, and common modes of thought, feeling, and action that make for coöperation, social cohesion, and social solidarity."

In this statement the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education has recognized that there must be specialization in education, but that unification is equally important in the training of pupils, if the objectives are to be carried out.

In the high school, there are only two agencies that have the opportunity of coming in touch with all the pupils. These two agencies, the high-school administrative department and the library, have no specialized body of material to teach, as have the other departments, and in their work they deal with all the members of the school body. Hence they are really the only two unifying agencies of the school. The library, in particular, is of importance in the matter of correlating the interests of all the departments in the school. As history is a continuous process in the life of the race, so education is a continuous process in the life of the pupils. For the purpose of organization and administration of secondary education, artificial divisions into departments according to subject matter is necessary, but this separation according to subject matter has tended at times to separate the school into almost independent units of instruction. In many schools the teachers give their loyalty to their department rather than to the school as a whole or to the objectives for which the school stands. Each subject then entrenches itself as best it can without reference to the other subjects taught in the school. Therefore, specialization becomes rigid, fixed, and uncompromising at

the very period in the life of the pupil when orientation, exploration, and general sampling of subject matter are what he needs most. Under these conditions, the school library must have for its objective the unification of education, the correlation of one department with another.

There are various ways in which the library can deal with this problem, the most important of which is by having a well-rounded supply of books. The curriculum in the school will determine the size and nature of the book collection and will influence the expenditure of the book fund. If the school stresses the vocational and industrial interests of life, the library must show this in the number and kind of books on vocations and industry that it contains. If the school emphasizes the cultural and appreciation type of course, the library must, in answer to this phase of education, have a book collection rich in literature and the fine arts. The school library must be ever sensitive to the curriculum of the school and to the methods of teaching, and must foresee the demands which are likely to be made on the library in the future by the established curriculum of the school. It takes time to build up a creditable book collection; hence, in order that the library may keep pace with the work of the school, book orders must be decided upon when curricular problems are decided. But there must be a clear distinction made between what is a growing, vital, and real tendency, and what is ephemeral and temporary. Courses that are put into the school as experiments and that, it is intended, shall have only a temporary place in the curriculum, should be given their relative importance in the ordering of books.

Much of the book fund can be wasted if the library is influenced by the specialized interest of a teacher or a group of teachers. It should always be remembered, in buying books for the school library, that these books are primarily for the pupils of the school, and the purchases

selected accordingly. In one high school the teacher of ancient history ordered so many books on his subject that the ancient history collection in that library would have done credit to a graduate library. But for the high school, it meant that a large proportion of the book fund was spent on material too difficult for the pupils to use. This use of the book fund had the effect of decreasing the number of books in the library which were alive and in use. The books which the pupils actually needed to enrich the subject matter taught, and for pleasure reading, were extremely limited in proportion to the number of overmature books in ancient history on the library shelves. Too often it happens that an insistent teacher will succeed in getting more than his share of the book fund for his department; and, just as in the case of the ancient history teacher, the library will not be well balanced, and will have too many books on one subject, though very few on another. In such a case the librarian must judge the requests for books in the light of the needs of the school as a whole. Never for a moment should the objective of correlating and unifying the school be lost sight of in building up the book collection. That entails the obligation that the book collection should represent the curricular activity of the school. Orders for books too mature for the high-school pupils, or for whole sets of books which mean a large expenditure of the book fund, should be closely scrutinized, in order that it may be determined whether or not the material will be used enough to warrant so great an expenditure. In a word, all possible precautions should be taken for making the book collection conform with the curriculum and the objectives of the school.

The school library is not a separate and independent organization in the school. It is a part of the school system and has something to contribute to all the objectives of the secondary school. Library service has many angles. To

help the various departments in the school to carry out the objectives for their subjects is one important function of the library. Since it is the unifying agency in the school, the school library cannot allow itself to become overorganized and specialized. Nor can it afford to become interested solely in the departments which use it most. Certain departments, as, for example, English and history, will find it much more essential to use the services and the books in the library than will some other departments. But no single department must be allowed to take a possessive attitude toward the library. There is material which can be made available for all departments in the school; and there is library service suitable for every department in the school. All departments in the school can be made to feel, by actual experience with the library, that they may obtain help from their library in carrying out the objectives for their departments. The library cannot, from the nature of the subject matter, give to each and every department the same kind and amount of service, but it can give to each department what each needs.

It must be conceded that, were it not for the recognition of the valuable services rendered by the library in such departments as English and history, many school libraries would not be in existence. These departments have, by reason of their subject matter, been especially dependent on the library for reference and illustrative material for their courses. This need of the library by two important departments in the school formed a nucleus to which other departments were added one by one until all were using the library, and thus the work of unifying education and correlating the departments of the school could be carried on.

The library in the school has always had vague ideals as unformed and idealistic as those held by educators. In most cases the library has had an uncertain foothold in the

school, and, just as new subjects introduced into the curriculum have to justify themselves and are never on an equal footing with the traditional subjects, so the library has been on trial over a long period of time. Under these trying circumstances of uncertainty and probation, all the library could hope to do was to fill the immediate need for its services, and increase in usefulness as opportunities for greater service arose. But as the library has become more fully entrenched in the school, it has been found advisable to check up what it was doing for the school in respect to the general objectives of education and the specialized objectives of the departments in the particular school.

For the school library no preconceived set of objectives is possible, aside from the important one of service, which is an objective that is compatible with any situation in which the library might be placed. Conditions in the community, adolescent characteristics, and the objectives in the school will determine the specific objectives of the library. The library must take into account the character of the school community so that it may adapt itself to the particular situation in which it is placed. It is therefore essential that the librarian in organizing the library service and in building up the book collection should be familiar with all the conditions in the school and in the community. If the purposes of the library in the school are to be intelligently carried out, the librarian must make a study of the conditions under which library service is to function. That presupposes that she shall be familiar with all the objectives of the various departments of the school; for only when all the factors in the educational situation are known to the librarian can she formulate objectives for the library.

The general objectives of secondary education give a clew to what pupils of the high school are to get from their high-school training. The objectives of each department of the school give an idea of what each subject can contribute

to that training. The library as a unifying agency will find it necessary to analyze all these objectives in order that its work may be both practical and purposeful. An analysis of the objectives of the various departments in the school will show the librarian new ways of coöperating with the various departments of the school, which will greatly increase the efficiency of the departments. If such an analysis can be made with the help of the teacher, much will be gained in mutual understanding and coöperation. If the librarian makes the analysis herself, she should call to the attention of the teacher the service the library is prepared to give that particular department in carrying out its objectives.

Obviously, certain departments in the school have more need of the library than have others. But all departments, if they have kept up with the modern tendencies in education, will find some use of the library essential in their work. As a rule, the mathematics department is less interested in library service than is any other department. But even in mathematics, wide reading in the cultural aspects of the subjects, the new development in science for which mathematics serves as a spokesman, and the correlation of mathematics with the other subjects of the school have made library service a necessity. The visual, graphic, and art possibilities in a subject such as mathematics have made it both cultural and exact. The analysis of the following objectives of the mathematics department of the University of Chicago High School shows the possibility of library service for this subject. Over two hundred projects have been completed by pupils in the mathematics department from material consulted in the library, with the guidance of teachers in the department and the librarian. Most of the projects were the result of the formulation of the objectives listed below under V. The objectives will show the possibilities in the subject.

MATHEMATICS

- I. *Ability to read, understand, and appreciate quantitative accounts in general reading and in other school studies.*

This requires:

1. Control of the number system.
2. Understanding of symbolic notation and of simple formulas and equations.
3. Knowledge of the fundamental geometrical forms, facts, and principles.
4. Ability to read and understand discussions in mathematical textbooks.

- II. *Ability to use mathematics.* This requires:

1. Accuracy and proficiency in arithmetical computations and in problem solving.
2. Skill in making scale drawings, designs, graphs, geometrical figures, both free hand and with drawing instruments.
3. Direct and indirect methods of measuring lengths, surfaces, and solids.
4. Skill in the fundamentals of algebra.
5. Ability to express laws in simple and clear mathematical formulation.

- III. *Ability to do quantitative thinking:*

1. Analyzing quantitative relations and drawing from them proper conclusions.
2. Saying exactly what one means, and meaning exactly what one says.
3. Attacking new problems by mathematical methods of thought.

- IV. *Effective habits of study as applied to mathematical situations:*

1. Orderly habits of precise oral and written expression.
2. Setting out to do a specific thing and doing precisely that thing.
3. Persistence, and enjoyment in overcoming obstacles.

- V. *Development of a genuine interest in mathematics:*

1. Recognition of the importance of mathematical ideas and processes in business, architecture, science, etc.

2. Continued study to develop growth in mathematical power.

No two school libraries will have the same objectives because no two school situations are ever exactly the same. There are few constants in education. Most of the factors that enter into educational systems are variables, and that makes differences more possible than likenesses. Hence one high school is seldom ever like another and the library is a reflection of the school of which it is a part. But just as there are objectives for secondary education as a whole, so there are objectives for school libraries as a whole without relation to the school level. The objectives formulated by the American Library Association and published in *The Booklist*, May-June, 1921, will give some idea of the generally accepted objectives of libraries in the schools:

LIBRARIES IN EDUCATION

1. All pupils in both elementary and secondary schools should have ready access to books to the end that they may be trained:
 - (a) To love to read that which is worth while.
 - (b) To supplement their school studies by the use of books other than textbooks.
 - (c) To use reference books easily and effectively.
 - (d) To use intelligently both the school library and the public library.
2. Every secondary school should have a trained librarian, and every elementary school should have trained library service.
3. Trained librarians should have the same status as teachers or heads of departments of equal training and experience.
4. Every school that provides training for teachers should require a course in the use of books and libraries, and a course on the best literature for children.
5. Every state should provide for the supervision of school libraries and for the certification of school librarians.
6. The public library should be recognized as a necessary part of public instruction, and should be as liberally supported by tax as are the public schools, and for the same reasons.

7. The school system that does not make liberal provision for training in the use of libraries fails to do its full duty in the way of revealing to all future citizens the opportunity to know and to use the resources of the public library as a means of education.

The library in secondary schools must build upon the work that the elementary-school library and the junior high-school library have been doing. Where such libraries have been lacking, the high-school library must lay the foundation of library service both for teachers and pupils as well as build the superstructure of library experiences. Because general objectives *are* so general, and because they must fit a variety of situations, they must be broad enough to admit of interpretations that will fit particular situations. General objectives are more available for study than are particular objectives. They are the result of general experience rather than particular needs.

In the modern high school the curriculum is richer than formerly in the number of subjects pupils may choose from, and in the manifold interpretations which can be given to subject matter. The cultural and the practical, the subjects that tend to be disciplinary and the appreciation type of subject, all lend themselves equally well to wide reading. Just as there is no standard child, so there is no standard course. The teaching is individualized and humanized to fit the pupil. These considerations make the work in the high-school library more complex than that in the elementary-school and junior high-school libraries. If the pupils of the school have not had the experience that the library can give, while they were in the elementary schools and junior high schools, this deficiency must be remedied in the high school. Pupils must be taught how to get the greatest amount of value out of books, and also how to avail themselves of library facilities. The library must be ready also to take over part of the remedial work of pupil adjustments, and must help in the solution of the

many personal problems of the adolescent child. The problem, then, of the high-school library has to do not only with the curriculum taught but also with the pupil adjustment in the school, and with the fixing of standards and attitudes which that entails. The objectives in such a complex situation will necessarily be correspondingly complex. The following objectives of the University of Chicago High School Library show the varied purposes of a library-study-room combination:

LIBRARY-STUDY-ROOM

I. *General*—Objectives in the school organization:

1. To serve as the laboratory and workroom of the school.
2. To make available library material for the use of teachers and pupils.
3. To coöperate with all departments of the school in the carrying out of their objectives.
4. To serve as a centralizing agency in the plan of school administration.

II. *Special*—Objectives in pupil training:

1. Acquisition of valuable information
 - (a) To enrich the subject matter taught.
 - (b) To make for accuracy of thought and expression through knowledge of fact.
 - (c) To teach pupils how to use books and libraries.
2. Development of a liking for clean, wholesome pleasure
 - (a) To make reading for pleasure a habit.
 - (b) To furnish an outlet for intellectual interests, for example, hobbies, avocations.
 - (c) To foster the intellectual interests aroused in the classroom.
3. Acquisition of habits of industry
 - (a) To develop effective habits of study.
 - (b) To plan and organize school work with a view to economy of time and effort.
 - (c) To train pupils to recognize the purposefulness of school life.

In a general way, all high-school libraries aim to give service to the school of which they are a part. The kind and amount of service they are able to give will depend on the educational practices in the school, the coöperation given to the library by the school community, and the state of the library. Each and every library will have objectives which will indicate the potential service it is prepared to give in the particular school of which it is a part. And because conditions in schools differ, the general library objectives will differ. But all high-school libraries have one thing in common, and that is the goal of potential service. The services that the library is to perform in the school are of two kinds. Directly, the school library aims to guide and direct the leisure reading of the pupils in the school; to give to children, through books, a knowledge of the world in its diverse form; to help them discover their own creative abilities and aptitudes; and to make it possible for them to obtain vicarious experiences which will add to their apperceptive mass. The second direct contribution to the educational program of the school is the training it gives to pupils in the use of books and libraries. Indirectly, the library serves as a unifying agency in the general scheme of school administration. It serves as the coöperating and correlating agency for the subject matter taught in the school, and is therefore an adjunct to all the classrooms. In addition it serves as the clearing house for all ideas intellectual and æsthetic, as well as a center of the social and extracurricular activities in the school.

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CHAPTER II

HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARY DEVELOPMENT

The growth of the library in the secondary schools is a comparatively recent development. True, a branch of the public library was installed in the Central High School in Cleveland as early as 1895, and a similar experiment in library expansion was tried in Newark, New Jersey, in 1899, but these libraries were organized primarily as branches of the public libraries, to serve the people living near the school, rather than as laboratories for the school in which they were located. The number of school libraries did not increase very rapidly, in the early years of their existence, for the methods of teaching then in vogue in the schools did not necessitate a great deal of library service. It has only been since the inauguration of scientific method in the study of education, the resulting tests, and school surveys, that school libraries have enjoyed such phenomenal growth. Since about 1910 the secondary schools have undertaken to formulate objectives of education and have studied the subjects of the curriculum in terms of their value to the pupils. This examination of the purposes of education has resulted in a gradual change of attitude on the part of secondary-school educators toward the use of books in the educative process. One might group these changing opinions as follows:

1. In the early days of the secondary school, the faith of the educator was pinned to the efficacy of one book, which was used as the text.
2. Gradually teachers adopted the practice of using the text-

book, with the auxiliary aid of many copies of a few selected books which served as parallel texts or as supplementary reading.

3. The next logical step was toward the use of the textbook, with the addition of much supplementary reference material to enrich the subject matter taught, and a large number of books to furnish reading experience. This change in method necessitated a school library.

4. The last and most modern development favors the possession of a textbook by each member of the class, a selected group of books in the classroom, which deal with the topic under discussion, and books and illustrative material on the topic in the school library. This point of view presupposes a central school library, with branches in every classroom. The book collections in the classrooms change with the introduction of each new unit of instruction.

As the methods of secondary-school instruction changed, somewhat according to the brief suggestive sketch given above, there was a corresponding change in the amount of stress laid on supplementary reading, which greatly increased the demands for library service. When the schools had reached the stage at which so many books were needed to carry on instruction that no one classroom or no one teacher could assume the responsibility of selecting and caring for all the books needed for a particular subject, educators began seriously to consider the school library as an integral part of the educational system; and, once established, the increase in school libraries has become one of the outstanding features of modern secondary education.

Although the growth in the number and kinds of school libraries has been a direct answer to the great need of the school for library service within its own doors as a part of the education of the young, the secondary school was not the first agency to interest itself in establishing school libraries. Their development was due to the desire of the public library to increase the scope of its services to the community. Having already established branch libraries

and library stations throughout the cities, the public library, realizing the possibilities of the public school as a center for the dissemination of knowledge and culture to the community, determined to utilize the school as a means of making the treasures of the library even more widely available to the reading public. Hence, as early as 1895, they undertook to establish community libraries in the high schools.

These libraries, though housed in the public-school building, were under the direct control of the public library, which supplied the books, the library equipment, and the library staff. The board of education coöperated with the public library in the experiment to the extent of furnishing the library room (usually one of the basement rooms in the school building), heat, light, and janitor service. The library thus established was to be used by both the school and the general public. As a rule such a library had an outside entrance opening from the street, in order that the people of the neighborhood might come into the library at any time without going through the halls and distracting the attention of the pupils from their studies. To serve the school under those conditions was difficult.

It is interesting to note the different attitudes maintained in regard to this innovation, by the public library and the school organization. The former looked upon the library thus established as a branch library, as another method of public-library expansion. But the school in which the library was located regarded it with some indifference, because, since teaching procedure had not yet begun to consider wide reading on the part of the pupils as a necessary aid to the process of learning, teachers felt that the library was not altogether indispensable to the school. As soon, however, as the school reached the stage of development in which the library became an essential part of teaching procedure, the branch of the public library

in the school, it was found, failed to answer the new requirements. More books and service were needed than the public library could afford to give.

A study made by the staff of the St. Louis Public Library¹ revealed the fact that of the sixteen cities questioned, in which this type of library still prevailed, only two reported any degree of success. The reasons given for the failure of this system may be classified as (1) those that are fundamental, and (2) those that are due to difficulties in administration. Under the objections to this type of secondary-school library the following may be noted:

1. The library book collection that would be suitable for the adult reader would not necessarily be suitable for pupils of high-school age.

Undesirable characters in the neighborhood might use the library, and this contact would be harmful to pupils of high-school age.

The divided interest in the library—that of the public at large, and that of the school—made it doubtful whether either was adequately served. The public could not receive the best type of library service; nor could the school in which the library was located use it as a laboratory under the same conditions as other laboratories were used.

There would necessarily be friction between the public library and the school. The public library would be limited in its plans by the needs of the school; and the school would be impatient because the public library was more interested in the library as a branch of the public library than as a laboratory for the school.

2. The difficulties in administration had to do mostly with janitor troubles, and with the necessity for closing off corridors and stairways in order to keep the general public within the library room, and to confine the high-school pupils within the school building.

¹"Branch Libraries in School Buildings," Bulletin of the St. Louis Public Library, 1922.

It is not surprising, therefore, that this sort of library did not become the prevailing type established when the secondary school finally became convinced that library service was an essential part of education, and when it began to assume some responsibility for the school libraries that were built up.

The second type of school-library control was a modification of the earlier form of organization. The school board and the library board established the library in the school for school purposes only. It was admitted by the school that it had need of library services, but that since libraries in schools were still in the experimental stage, the public library was more fitted to undertake the work of organizing and administering them. In the various cities where this type of library control still exists, the organization of the different libraries varies somewhat. The Schenley High School Library of Pittsburgh is an example of such an agreement between school and library boards. The arrangements made between the school board and the library board are as follows:

School libraries are administered by teacher-librarians recommended by the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh, and paid by the board of education. Training of librarians should be equal to that of a teacher with the addition of library training. The salary paid should equal that of an English teacher.

Hours when the library is to serve the school are to be determined by the needs of the school. The librarian's hours are to be no more than the regulation library hours.

Permanent equipment should conform with library standards. It is to be selected by the Carnegie Library, and paid for by the school board.

Routine should conform as nearly as possible with that of other branches of the Carnegie Library, except when this routine conflicts with the best interests of the particular school.

Book collections that are to be used permanently in the school, for example, reference books, periodicals and newspapers, picture

collections and other visual material, are to be purchased by the school board. The Carnegie Library furnishes the collection of books for general reading. The books to be added to the library are chosen by the teacher-librarian from the recommendations of the principal of the school with the approval of the Carnegie Library.

An examination of the conditions under which the Schenley High School Library is established will show that there are many points upon which the Carnegie Library and the school board might differ. Although in that particular situation the plan of joint control seems to work well, such is not the case in many other cities. In Chicago, for example, school libraries have been closed and in a few cases have not reopened along with the schools at the beginning of the school year because adjustments had to be made between the library board and the school board. The obvious defects in the system of joint control are: (a) The librarian's allegiance is divided; (b) the library cannot respond immediately to changes in school policy, for it is dependent on the will of the public library; (c) the library is looked upon as an outside agency rather than as a permanent department in the school; (d) the school shifts certain responsibilities to the public library, the public library retaliates by assuming that the school will take certain other responsibilities in relation to the school library, and thus the library is left in a precarious position.

It is not to be supposed, however, that the system of joint control has nothing in its favor. When a school library is established, its connection with the public library makes it possible for it to function almost immediately. The staff of library workers, a book collection already classified and catalogued, and all the machinery for setting up a library are already at hand. The public library can, without loss of time or money, establish a school library that will serve its public quickly and efficiently. Thus it is a great

advantage to the school to avail itself of the services of the public library. But this advantage in the early days of the establishment of the school library is lost as time progresses and the demands of the school come in conflict with the policies of the public library. The school finds that although it was the gainer from this joint control at the start, because the public library contributed to the efficient organization of the library and made it possible for the school to secure a well-chosen book supply, the methods and objectives of the public library do not altogether fit into the school system. The public library finds that this joint arrangement takes a large part of the library appropriation which its service to the community as a whole does not seem to warrant. With the growing need of the schools for books and visual material, their demands on the library appropriation are out of proportion to the relatively large number of other parts of the population that are entitled to public library service. Thus both the public-library board and the school board have a just grievance to air in the matter of joint control of the school library.

We have seen that, as the curricula in the schools were subjected to analysis in order that their use in terms of pupil experience and abilities might be determined, it was found that the old stereotyped question-and-answer textbook subject matter would not suffice in the present state of the educational needs. An enriched curriculum taught in a manner that called for more supplementary and reference reading gave rise to the establishment of school libraries, first under the public library and then under the joint control of the public-library board and the school board. There were obvious advantages to be gained in the school from even those libraries thus established. In order to retain these advantages without the counterbalancing disadvantages, many schools have now established school

libraries under the sole control of the school board. This is the latest development in school-library management. Most of the progressive high-school libraries are directly controlled by the school board, and are as much a part of the teaching force of the school as is any other department of the school. The school libraries in Detroit, Michigan, and Los Angeles, California, are examples of school libraries efficiently managed under school direction. The advantages of this arrangement are self-evident: (a) The library can fit in with the aims of the school, and can adjust itself immediately to the changing conditions in the school; (b) the library is considered a part of the school, and is therefore in a better position to give service to the whole school; (c) the responsibility for the school library is fixed, and therefore its growth is accelerated; (d) the better support of the library is assured, and consequently better service made possible.

The advantages which the school library under school-board control possesses are offset by some very obvious disadvantages. In organizing such a high-school library, the lack of help from the public library in planning and making available its many resources is a decided drawback. Instead of having a collection of books already classified, catalogued, and ready for circulation, the school librarian must do all this work before the school library can function, and this, of course, takes a great deal of time. Without the support of the public library, the school library established under school-board control finds it hard to insist upon the best library standards, not only in matters of housing and equipment, but also in regard to the use of the best library technique, which school principals are not always likely to consider essential to the ultimate success of the library. It is rather difficult to get the proper bibliographic tools and the special furniture for the library because they are expensive, and from the point of view of

many school principals are not as necessary as other library expenditures that will be immediately used by the teachers and pupils. And yet for the ultimate efficient working of the library certain heavy expenditures are needed which the experience of the public library has found essential to right library standards.

The maximum growth of the school library came only after the high school had begun to study the phenomena of its own organization and operation in a scientific manner, to survey its own practices, formulate objectives, and to concern itself with increasing the educational and professional standards of teachers. At the same time, the public library, having outgrown its earlier formative period, was just beginning to realize itself as a part of a vitally important profession and to recognize its own place as a factor in education. Until now the public library had been engaged in perfecting the technique of library methods, had created ways of handling books more efficiently and economically, and experimented with various types of architecture and equipment for every kind of library. In addition, through the American Library Association and periodicals devoted to library affairs (chiefly, *Public Libraries*² and *The Library Journal*), these findings were made available for all libraries. But now, that finished, the public library turned, as did the school, to an examination and evaluation of its own practices and purposes. It was just at this crucial point in the development of the school and the public library that the school library made its appearance, and before either of these could emerge from its self-inventory to impose standards upon the school library, many were established on a more or less haphazard plan.

Some of these early school libraries were in the basement, and were used for both adults and children. Some were placed in an inadequate classroom and presided over

² The name has recently been changed to *Libraries*.

by a librarian who had neither the professional training nor the educational qualifications necessary for administering a library. For equipment, the library often had old furniture discarded by the school and wholly unsuited for the purpose. The book collection might be made up of "cast-offs," sets of supplementary readers, and out-of-date science books. On the other hand, many of the earlier school libraries were well-organized and well-administered in every respect. On the whole, the school libraries that developed before the era of standardization followed the best principles of library technique, as they knew them, and served their schools in an altogether creditable manner, considering the handicaps under which they worked.

In 1916, a committee of the National Education Association and of the American Library Association under the chairmanship of Mr. C. C. Certain began working on the problem of standardization of high-school libraries. It was found that conditions under which the library had to function varied so widely in the different schools that all the committee could hope to do was to formulate the minimum essentials for school libraries in schools of varying sizes. The report of this committee is issued under the title, "Standard Library Organization and Equipment for Secondary Schools of Different Sizes."³ This report had to do with appropriate housing, professionally trained librarians, scientific care and selection of books, instruction in books and libraries, and adequate annual appropriations. Minimum standards in all these details were set for schools of different sizes. It is interesting, in the light of the modern tendency toward uniformity, to note that, although greatly interested in the standardization of school libraries,

³C. C. Certain, "A Standard High School Library Organization for Accredited Secondary Schools of Different Sizes," *Journal of Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 3, 1917, pp. 317-338.

the chairman of the committee held the opinion that each school-library organization must be plastic enough to be able always to adapt itself to the school of which it is a part.

Practically every state and private educational association now includes a well-equipped and organized library in the requirements for accredited secondary schools. In the bulletin entitled, "Accredited Secondary Schools in the United States," the United States Bureau of Education has this reference to the school library: "It is assumed that the curriculum of an accredited school represents four years of thirty-six or more weeks and has at least three teachers giving their whole time to high school work, and that the school keeps up an adequate library and laboratory equipment." This statement also gives the minimal standards. Similar references to library facilities are to be found in the standards of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States. In the statement, "Give satisfactory evidence as to curriculum, staff of teachers, and equipment," which occurs in the requirements of the New England College Entrance Certificate Board, it is rather assumed that the school library is included in the word "equipment."

The North Central Association has a fuller statement of standards. The standards published by this association, in 1924, are representative of what is expected of good high schools at the present time: "The library and laboratory facilities must be adequate to meet the needs of instruction in all courses offered. The library should be classified and catalogued." The following questions, which each and every school in the North Central Association must answer, reveal the condition of the library in the particular school more fully than the general statement above would imply:

Number of useful volumes in the high-school library.....

Is the library card-catalogued and adequately housed?.....

What amount was spent last year for library books?.....

Do you employ a full-time librarian?.....

Number of books in the library for the following fields: English
 Social Science..... Natural Science..... Mathe-
 matics..... Foreign Languages..... Prevocational and Vo-
 cational..... Miscellaneous.....

Is there a trained librarian in charge?.....

The answers to these questions will give a fairly good idea whether or not the school library is adequate in the particular school. In 1927 the North Central Association required each high school in the association to score its library.⁴

The attempts at standardization have aimed at retaining what is best in library technique, and at making this technique facilitate the work of education. Emphasis is laid, not on a set form of school library, but on creating conditions favorable to the development of the best type of school library. The library requirements made by educational associations are vague, but they indicate the feeling of the educational association that education cannot be adequately carried on without the school library. And the questions which the school administrators must answer in their annual reports to the association give very specific information concerning the library in the particular school.

In certain respects, the secondary school and the public library have come to the same opinion in regard to the school library. In the process of adapting the ordinary library routine to the school system the high-school librarian found it necessary to invent many new devices that were foreign to standard library practice for handling library material, for taking care of pupil accounting, and other matters of administrative routine, all of which, though trivial in themselves, were of immense value to the librarian, since they made it easier for her to accomplish the mechani-

⁴See Appendix I for score card.

cal part of her work in much less time, and allowed her to spend most of her time and energy in working directly with the pupils. Neither the secondary school nor the public library were particularly interested in the working devices adopted by any school. The public library granted that variations from the standard library practice were necessary if the school library was to adapt itself to its surroundings; and the school recognized that the library could not, as a rule, conform to the ordinary classroom situations and practices.

On two points, however, the school and the library have always held widely different opinions. These considerations had to do with (1) teaching the use of books and libraries, and (2) the use of the school library for purposes other than for reference and recreational reading.

1. The library maintained that since there is such widespread ignorance among adults as to the use of books and libraries, as seriously to limit the efficiency of many mature people, something must be done to train children before they grow up in the proper use of such material. If the pupils are to receive instruction that will teach them to study effectively, increase their ability to engage in intellectual interests, and contribute to their ability and desire to use leisure worthily, the work must be done in the school as a part of the school-library program, thus giving the library an opportunity of contributing directly to pupil-training.

Educators have always agreed that it was highly desirable that pupils be instructed in the use of books and libraries; but certain questions always arose regarding a place in the curriculum, credit to be granted, time on the school program, the type of course to be given, and who should give it. It was usually felt that the school program was already so overcrowded that no place could be found for such a course. Then, too, it was not quite clear what the

subject content should be. Should the course be a comprehensive one given to the pupils in consecutive years, or should it be a short course, in which the use of books and libraries would be stressed, with practical application to the particular school library? Who should give the course, presented another difficult problem, for in many cases the librarian did not have sufficient training in educational methods to organize the course in conformance with the best pedagogical principles. The question of credit was also important. The time spent on such a course and the number of lessons given would not measure up to the requirements for a half unit of high-school credit. Since the College Entrance Board did not recognize the course, the only way by which pupils could receive some measure of credit for taking it was to incorporate it with some other subject—usually English—and give credit for it as part of the English credit. Because of the fact that the whole situation in regard to giving such a course had been so uncertain, school administrators, though conceding the value of the training it offers to the pupils of the school, nevertheless felt that including the course in the regular curriculum would necessitate adjustments which they were not as yet prepared to make. And, on the other hand, the librarians maintained that the course was so essential to the complete education of the pupils that it should be included in the curriculum, no matter what adjustments were involved.

2. Another difference arose over the use of the library for purposes other than for reference or recreational reading. The school population had been increasing so enormously during the last decade that a majority of the secondary schools lacked the necessary space and equipment with which to carry on the business of education in an efficient manner. The overcrowding of all the buildings had necessitated having the children come to school in shifts or

platoons. The administration resorted to all kinds of makeshifts in order to take care of the ever increasing number of young people who entered the high schools.

It was during this era of growth and congestion in the secondary schools that the school library first came into prominence as an important part of the educational system. Because of the prevailing conditions, the space assigned to the library was generally one of two kinds: either it was a classroom, all too small to contain the library material, and provide ample space for the pupils who needed to use the library, or it was a study hall that was to be converted into a library. In either case, conditions were not ideal as far as the library was concerned. With the crowded conditions prevailing elsewhere in the school, it was taken for granted that the library could be made to serve as a study room also. From the point of view of the school this combination was not incompatible. But from the point of view of general library development it was considered detrimental to good library service and morale. It was the consensus of opinion among school librarians that the library-study-hall type of organization was undesirable. The burden of accounting for pupils who did not need library service as well as for those who did, was found to curtail the school library in its efforts to give the best type of library service. The problem of discipline became an important factor in the situation, for the presence of so many children, not all of whom came to study, often operated to make the library too noisy for effective work. Few of the library-study-room type of organization are in existence because it was found that school librarians would not undertake to administer such a situation. The schools where the library-study-hall type exist are generally schools with small enrollments. It is usually only in schools with an enrollment of less than one thousand pupils that this type of library can function.

Although it has not generally been possible for schools to make the combination of the study room with their library, there have been variations of the plan. The dictum laid down by school libraries that the room be used for reference and for pleasure reading only, and that all textbook study should be relegated to the study hall, has not been followed to the letter. In some schools, the pupils in history, English, music appreciation, art appreciation, and other subjects in which wide reading is possible have had more or less regularly scheduled library periods. In such a situation, and particularly in the subjects mentioned, it is not easy to tell where reference work and wide reading end and where textbook study begins. The policy of the school administration has been to make room in the library for as many pupils as possible, irrespective of what activity they were to follow. The school librarian would save the library space for those pupils who wish to engage in reference work and in other activities that require library material and service.

As new school buildings are erected with ample classroom, library, and laboratory space, the overcrowded conditions gradually adjust themselves. There is then less pressure on the library to undertake study-hall duty. The new methods of instruction require more individual instruction and the use of more library material; they call for not only the potential but the maximum service that the library can give to meet the demands of the school population for reference and recreational reading. The school library, then, more than justifies its place in the school in its direct contributions to the training of the pupils and as an adjunct to each classroom.

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CHAPTER III

ORGANIZING THE LIBRARY FOR EDUCATION

Many secondary schools are doing excellent work at the present time, even though they are hampered by buildings that are too small, equipment that is out of date, and lack of space or opportunity for expansion. To keep a school, thus handicapped, abreast with the newer educational ideas entails upon administrator and teachers the added heavy burden of adapting their inadequate working tools to standards that take for granted the possession by the school of the very best equipment money can buy. Under such conditions, teachers will often find that even though they put forth almost superhuman efforts, the results they obtain do not measure up to the results possible in schools containing suitable equipment. The same condition prevails in school libraries. Those libraries installed in the newer building where provision has been made in the plans for a library room can function with much less administrative makeshift than can the school library housed in a room unsuited to the purpose, and wholly inadequate for the work that will be necessary in a school of the size in which it is placed.

For obvious reasons, the size of the school population is one of the first things to be considered in planning for a library in any school. Upon the number of pupils will depend the seating space necessary in the library room. The enrollment, too, decides to a certain extent the initial number and type of books to be ordered when the library is first established, and the probable amount of shelf space

to be allowed for the growth of the book collection. But even before these matters can be determined, it must be definitely decided for what purposes the library will be used in the school; for, naturally, the size of the room, the number of books, the amount of shelf space, and the seating capacity of the library depend, first of all, upon how the library is to be used by the students. Any desired modifications can, of course, be made of the basic use to which a library is put in any particular school. But of the various purposes for which school libraries are, in general, organized, the following are the most common:

1. The library is used for reference only during the school day. After school the pupils come to the library to draw books for home use.

2. The pupils are sent to the library for both reference and for pleasure reading. Only the books in the library are used by the pupils. No use of the textbook is allowed.

3. Pupils are scheduled to the library who have courses requiring reference work regularly.

4. The school library is used as a study hall. All pupils have a library period during the day. No distinction is made between textbook study and the use of the library material.

Under the conditions prevailing under (1), seating space must be allowed for 10 per cent of the pupils enrolled. In a school in which the library is to be used as a study hall, as in (4) above, 35 per cent of the pupils must be provided for in the library. These two groups indicate the extremes in the relation of the size of the school population to the size of the school-library room. For the second purpose (2), which is a modification of (1), a seating capacity for 20 per cent of the school population is required. For the third purpose (3), which is a limitation of (4) a 25 per cent seating space in the library is needed. In actual practice, few school libraries have adequate facilities for taking care of the pupils in the school. In one school, built in Cleve-

land in 1916, which was to provide for 2,000 pupils, a library was planned that would seat 50 pupils. In 1926, there was in Chicago a school enrolling 3,500 pupils that had a library with a seating capacity of 53. Needless to say, these two libraries can be used by so few pupils during the school day that their only hope of reaching the pupils is by means of the after-school circulation of books for home use. However, since educators have recognized the limitations of teaching without library facilities, some notable school libraries have been organized. Detroit has high-school libraries that fulfill in every respect the recognized requirements for school libraries. The Technical High School Library at Omaha, Nebraska, too, has made more than adequate provision for the library. Many of the school libraries organized before 1916 have been transferred to new quarters in the school or have had their old quarters enlarged in order to give them adequate space in which to carry on their activities. The Girls' High School Library at Brooklyn, New York, has been allotted space that increases its capacity from the original 30, in 1910, to 90 in 1918, and to 120 at the present time. The University of Chicago High School Library, which is used also as a study hall, in 1914 had a library that would seat 100 pupils. In 1920, the school library was moved into quarters large enough to seat 168 pupils.

It is difficult to specify the actual size in feet and inches of the school library in relation to the school population. Space must be allowed for library furniture and for the shelving around the entire room. The shelving space decreases the size of the room by 6 inches on all four sides. The size of the tables and the width of the aisles between the tables will affect the entire size of the room in relation to the seating capacity. The Schenley High School in Pittsburgh, which presents one of the best examples of the modern school library, is 32×80 feet, and provides a seating

capacity for 120 pupils. The University of Chicago High School Library is 45×90 feet, and, as said before, has a seating capacity of 168.

In any plan for an effective school library, not only the main reading room but the auxiliary rooms connected with the main room must be given thoughtful consideration. These smaller rooms attached to the main reading room of the school library will in some cases do as much to increase the use of the library as will the increase in the size of the main reading room. A classroom seating 40 pupils connected with the Girls' High School Library of Brooklyn is used by different classes of the school for class periods when the use of library material, illustrative material, and the stereopticon are a part of the teaching procedure. It also serves as the library classroom for the course in the use of books and libraries, and, in addition, is utilized as an overflow room when the library is crowded, thus increasing the possible seating capacity of the library to 160. The many uses for such a room, large enough to accommodate an entire class, that is connected with the school library are too apparent to need much enumeration. A book truck of special books for a course can be prepared by the librarian in advance. The truck can be rolled into the auxiliary room, and used by the teacher for a period of laboratory work, supervised study, or for a round-table discussion. This is one of the best ways of introducing a new subject, for with the supplementary material immediately at hand, the teacher can give a preview of the subject that will suggest the possibilities in the unit under discussion, and can introduce the pupils to the books and visual material that will aid them in assimilating the unit. The room can be used after school hours for faculty and committee meetings, for special student activities, such as literary and dramatic clubs. A room that lends itself to such extensive use should be carefully scheduled, in order that conflicts in its use may

be avoided. No room in the school will contribute more to the educational objectives of the school than this classroom adjacent to, and connected with, the school library. In a school with a large population, more than one of these classrooms should be provided, the number depending on the size of the school and the stage of educational development that it has reached.

Some of the newer type of school libraries have a group of small conference rooms connected with the main reading room for the use of pupils who are working together on special projects. The Roosevelt High School Library of Cleveland has a series of such conference rooms. Rooms used for this purpose should have glass partitions in order that they may be supervised from the main library room. As a general principle, it is undesirable to create a situation in which high-school pupils can get together in the school without some supervision. The work that they would do together might be worth while, and the time might be well spent in the great majority of cases; but in all schools there are pupils who will take advantage of any situation that offers a chance for irregular actions and attitudes. Because of this small number who would use the conference rooms for purposes other than those of real study and research, the conference rooms, although useful and even very necessary in connection with certain types of teaching, are not desirable from the point of view of school discipline.

There are two additional small rooms that are almost indispensable in a school library, one the librarian's office and workroom, and the other a storeroom. The first-named room the librarian needs for conferences with teachers and pupils and for meetings with her library staff. Here, too, the librarian and her assistants can perform the many tasks that cannot be carried on in the main reading room, where the workers would be subject to constant interruptions.

Books that are being made ready for circulation can be kept here. Cataloguing books, writing cards, organizing the day's work, sending out notices to teachers, writing reports—all of these are suggestions of the various activities that can be carried on in the librarian's office. The room should be equipped with a typewriter, a desk, a filing cabinet, and the other devices necessary for the efficient performance of the work of the library, and should be as soundproof as possible, in order that the noise of the work done there will not disturb the pupils in the main reading room. The library storeroom will serve as a place in which to keep the books that are received until they are checked off from the book-order cards; for back numbers of magazines held for binding; for books waiting to be sent to the bindery; for duplicates that are used for short periods only; for books that are out of date and that have been replaced by new editions, and for books to be mended. These are, of course, only a few of the uses to which a storeroom can be put. In this room there should be a large closet for the wraps of the library force, and running water for library purposes.

To plan a library in the school for present purposes only and not to provide for some growth in the size of the library as the school population increases, is to invite disaster as far as library service is concerned. As the school population grows, more courses are added to the school program, and the number of additional classrooms is increased as a matter of course. But the library is, more often than not, expected to give service to the larger school population without any addition to its facilities. As a result, the library is overcrowded, and the librarian is prevented from giving the best possible library service. The problem of overcrowding in the library creates an especially acute situation, because the library unit of work is with the individual pupil, not with classes, as is the case with teaching units. Any increase

in the school population affects the use of the school library, just as changes in the technique of instruction cause a demand for additional library service that makes more library space imperative. If there is some room adjacent to the library that can be added, either as a library classroom or as a part of the large reading room, the library will have some opportunity for continued expansion.

The location of the library in the school is a matter of great importance. The main things to be considered in choosing the place for the library are:

1. Accessibility of the library to the pupils, (a) during the school day and (b) after school, for the circulation of books.
2. Location with reference to study halls.
3. Nearness to classrooms that will use the library most.
4. Location with reference to securing a maximum of quiet.

No matter what may be the primary purpose for which the library is established, the object of every library is to serve all the pupils in every possible way. This service may be given during the school day or after school. In order that the library may best reach every pupil in the school it must be located where it will be most convenient for his use. Obviously, the place where most of the pupils would pass the library door would be in the main corridor. Some school libraries are located on the main floor, but it has been found that although this location answers the requirement of accessibility, because of this very fact there is so much noise that it is impossible for the librarian to give the students the best library service. The experience of high-school librarians in various parts of the country would seem to indicate that the second floor above the main entrance is usually the best place for the library. The Schenley High School Library of Pittsburgh and the library of the Oak Park and River Forest Township High School of Oak Park, Illinois, have this location in the school.

Any choice of location for the school library must take into consideration the location of the study halls. For from the study halls will come the greatest number of pupils who are to use the library unless the library and study hall are combined, as is the case in the University of Chicago High School Library. The ideal location would be to have the library adjacent to the study hall, with a door between. In the case of larger schools, the library could be placed between two study halls, thus obviating the necessity for a system of transfers and library permits.

When it is not feasible to have the library and study halls together, the library should be located as near as possible to the courses in which the largest amount of library material and service is required. If the history and English classrooms are grouped about the library, some arrangement can be made whereby library material can be wheeled into the classroom on a book truck for a period, and arrangements made by which the teacher assigning reference work will send to the study hall the names of the pupils to whom she is assigning library reference work or pleasure reading, making it possible for the pupils to go directly to the library.

If it is to be most useful to the school, the library must be quiet. Noise interferes with the intellectual activity which goes on in the library. Therefore, the library should not be located near the shops, the music classes, or the gymnasium. Nor is it well to place it in the wing of the school where there is much noisy traffic. Since the effective library serves the whole school, it will be found worth the effort to choose for it a place in which it may function best.

Because the school library is not of sufficient size to accommodate all the pupils at any hour when they are not in the classroom, some method of accounting for the pupils who come to the library is necessary. Pupils in secondary school must be scheduled and accounted for every hour of

the school day, as an essential part of the routine of the school administration. Librarians are as a rule impatient with the requirement that part of their precious time for working with the pupils be taken up with such matters. No doubt teachers, too, were once impatient of such details, but finding that this was a necessary part of school work, set about perfecting ways of making these details take as little time as possible. The librarian who is new in the school field would do well to gain this attitude at once. The taking of attendance in the library can be systemized so that it does not occupy an undue amount of the time that should be spent on library work. Lack of room in the library necessitates some choice of what pupils should be admitted to the library. Pupils come to the library from three special places: (1) the study halls; (2) the home room; and (3) the classroom. In some cases the transfer of the pupil is by transfer slip; in some, the pupils sent to the library sign a list posted in the library and this is returned by the librarian to the study hall to be checked for attendance. It is obvious that when there are many teachers who can send pupils to the library, at times the library room will be so overcrowded that it will be necessary for the librarian to return some of the pupils to the rooms from which they were sent. Such overcrowding makes a very difficult situation for the librarian. It is a hard matter for her to judge of the relative needs of a group of students, all of whom wish to use the library, and to decide which ones must be sent back to the study hall. Then, too, such situations always arise at the very beginning of the class hour, when the librarian's services are most in demand, and she has little time to spare for signing slips or whatever routine procedure such changes call for. If the library is used as a study hall, the pupils are scheduled there as they are in a regular classroom, and attendance reports are sent directly to the high-school office. In every

school some special form of pupil accounting exists. The library as a part of the school must take upon itself whatever form of accounting for the pupils best suits that particular school.

In the school situation, the library must also assume part of the responsibility for the health and eyesight of the pupils. Inasmuch as the pupils do a great amount of reading in the library, the relation of light to eyestrain is one of the general problems that the librarian must consider very carefully. Both the natural and the artificial lighting are matters demanding much thought. There should be enough windows to give adequate natural light during the school day. But even when there are enough windows to give this supply of natural light, there will be dark days when additional light must be furnished, and, especially during the winter, the late after-school hours will require the use of artificial light. This artificial light should be of the indirect kind, with frosted electric-light globes to relieve the glare. The lights should be hung from the ceiling at a height of 8 feet from the floor. The relation of the seating of the pupils to the light will need some scientific study on the part of the librarian. Wherever possible children should not face the light directly. If the seating space in the library is at a premium, it is not always possible to place pupils in the right position with reference to the light; but it would be well to sacrifice seating space in the interest of the eyesight of the pupils.

With the great numbers using the library each hour, the problem of ventilation is a serious one. In some schools there are ventilating systems which regulate this situation adequately. In many schools, however, this system is not effective in the library because more pupils use the room than the capacity of the system will provide. In that case some auxiliary ventilation, such as window ventilators made of glass, must be employed. These have the advan-

tage of sending fresh air into the room without allowing it to blow directly on the pupils. If windows are opened without the ventilators, the drafts are so unpleasant to the pupils sitting near the open windows that they will close them. It is not an unusual thing to find that windows opened at the beginning of the period are by some mysterious process closed without the librarian's being aware of it. When the ventilating system is not effective, opening the windows between periods will help to keep the air in the room in good condition during the period. But no matter what method is employed, the air in the library must be kept fresh if the health of the children is to be guarded and if their mental alertness is to be maintained.

The heat in the library is another of the problems relating to health and to the type of work done in the library. The location of the library, with its many windows, will make it impossible during unusually severe weather for the room to be heated sufficiently; and sometimes, even in ordinarily cold weather, the large surface of exposed space in the library makes the room colder than it would be otherwise. As a rule the thermostat will regulate the heat at the proper temperature. Where there is no thermostat, a thermometer must be used. For a classroom, 68° is the standard of heat required, but in the library a temperature of 69° or 70° is necessary because the pupils are sitting quietly while they work, and the small amount of physical activity in which they are engaged necessitates having the room a little warmer. If the library is kept too cold, the pupils will put on their heavy wraps and this interferes with good work. The humidity of the library is as important as is the right temperature. When dry heat is used in the school building, some provision for moisture must be made; for heat which is too dry is likely to affect the health of the pupils, and their physical condition will in part determine whether they make the most of their library period.

The library room must not only be adapted for its service in the school, but it must also be beautiful, in order that it may influence the lives of all the students, and give them a desire for artistic, harmonious surroundings. The fact that all the pupils have been given the opportunity to be surrounded by books, and have had the experience of living in a really beautiful room for one hour each day of their school life cannot but strengthen their desire to come into contact with things æsthetic. The educative influence of beautiful pictures and objects of art cannot be measured objectively. Perhaps it may mean that some pupils will change the ugliness of their own environment; perhaps it may mean that they will be more observant of the beauty in practical things; perhaps it may arouse in the pupil a love for things of the spirit. The inspiration and pleasure to be found in books are increased by an environment in which beauty of line, form, mass, and color is present. Because the library is the center of the intellectual interests of the school and is the one place which all the pupils have an opportunity to use, the room should in all respects be made worthy of them. By making the library serve as the center of beauty, it is possible to give students added motives for spending their leisure worthily. Whatever is placed in the library for decoration should conform to the best standards of art. A few good pictures are worth more for the æsthetic development of the pupils than any number of poor ones. Poor art, like poor literature, has no place in the library. It can do positive harm if it lacks the essentials that make art both a thing of beauty and a subjective influence for the formation of standards of taste. Certain pictures in series have been found to make excellent mural decorations for the library. The series called, "The Quest and Achievement of the Holy Grail," by Edwin Austin Abbey, which are on the walls of the delivery room of the Boston Public Library, are artistic in concep-

tion and execution, and can be of value to a school in connection with the study of Tennyson's *Idylls of the King*. The pictures in this series may be purchased one at a time in acceptable brown prints. One school library owes twelve pictures of the series to consecutive graduating classes, each one of which left one of the pictures in the series as a class gift. Other series which have found favor in school libraries are, "The Evolution of the Book," by John W. Alexander, and Sewell's "Canterbury Pilgrims." In school libraries situated in schools that draw their population from the crowded districts of large cities, good landscape pictures give glimpses of the out-of-doors which the pupils do not have in their environment. A single picture of earth, and trees, and sky may keep before the eyes of pupils who are apartment-house dwellers, the beauty of nature which they can find by seeking.

Original mural decorations are possible of attainment in some school libraries. The University of Chicago High School Library has two original murals designed by the art classes of the school, executed by a professional artist, and given to the library by a graduating class. Another innovation in library decoration, in the same library, is a frieze of printers' marks in the form of colored lunettes framed in Gothic panels. There is also in this library a frieze representing the trade-marks of some modern publishers. It seems a peculiarly fitting thing that the trade-marks of the early printers and the modern publishers should be found in the midst of a collection of books which their efforts made possible.

Reproductions of classic statuary make good decorations for the school library. The simplicity and restraint that are the classic ideal of beauty can be brought into the consciousness of the pupils more by keeping before their eyes the best examples of classic art than in any other way. The classic frieze, too, will lend beauty to the library and will

aid in making real to the students the civilization of an age long past.

Busts of authors and of the great men who have left their impress upon the history and institutions of ages past and present, offer suitable school-library decoration. For the pupil to have the honest, patient face of Lincoln before his vision for some time each day might mean that the true worth of Lincoln's life would dawn upon him, and unconsciously some of the finer traits of Lincoln's character might permeate the pupil's mind and heart, and make him a better citizen.

No school library is complete without growing plants. Window boxes should be purchased with the first equipment, for the cheerful atmosphere that plants lend helps to give the library a less formal air. In the library there is need of plants, flowers, and pictures that are bright in color. If the brightness of nature can be added to the dignity that is inherent in a library, the school library will be more attractive to the pupils of the school. Book bindings, too, can add a decorative note to the library, if they are bright and clean.

There is a special library equipment just as there is a special school equipment. Experiments have been made with various types of library furniture for a number of years, with the result that there is now on the market furniture that will fit any library situation. Most of the filing devices come in unit form, and can therefore be adapted to any requirement. This type of equipment can grow with the library, and still the original plan can be carried out. Because it answers a special need, and is made especially strong and serviceable, so that it can hold up under the constant use made of it, library equipment is expensive. But when the years of service in library equipment are taken into consideration, the expense is not exorbitant. The catalogue case, which is the first library need, can be

purchased in any size unit, and added to from time to time. The filing case for pamphlets and clippings, the magazine rack, the book truck, the book-display case, and the object-display cases are all standardized library equipment. There are book-charging desks that come ready-made which can be used if they fit the space in which they are to stand, although it is sometimes necessary to have a special desk or counter made to fit an unusual space.

The general equipment will require as much attention as the library equipment. The floor should be covered with some form of cork carpet to deaden the sound of the thousands of feet that will walk on it. Provision should be made for one or more fixed wall bulletin boards. The shelving for books can be purchased in units from the library-equipment houses. Many libraries have found this kind of shelving both useful and attractive. When the room is square with regular outline, and no unusual spaces are to be furnished with shelving, it will be found an economy to take advantage of the library shelving that can be purchased from the supply houses. But for a room that has spaces of unusual size and proportion, special shelving will have to be built. The shelving should have a base 3 inches from the floor, as it is very difficult to use the lower shelf if there is no base. The shelves should be 7 feet in height, not too high for the librarian and the pupils to reach. When they are too high, the top shelf is practically useless. The bookcases should be built around the walls of the room. The stack arrangement and the alcove system is not suitable for the high-school library. If, as in the case of the Technical High School Library in Omaha, Nebraska, two library rooms have a joint stack room, a librarian should be stationed in the stacks to help the pupils find books, and supervise the pupils while they are using them.

Providing the best kind of seating in the high-school li-

brary presents problems that are inextricably bound up with discipline. Lucile Fargo, in the *Library Journal* for September, 1920, has this to say on the subject:

Here let me say that I believe reading desks in the place of tables would go a long way toward solving the discipline problem. There is nothing that so suggests sociability as a table. And yet we group boys and girls around one and wonder why they talk. Desks should and can be made attractive and unlike regulation school furniture, as those in use in many college rooms prove.

Many librarians favor single seats for the pupils using the library, but are prevented from adopting them by the fact that the number of pupils for whom the library room has to provide seats is too large to allow the use of small desks. The largest size tables furnish the maximum of seating space; the smaller the table, the more aisles are created, and consequently the smaller the amount of seating space. Most school libraries have 3×5 tables seating from four to six pupils, depending on the number reporting in the library at one time. Tables of this size are used in the Schenley High School Library. In order that the library room of the University of Chicago High School Library may have the maximum seating capacity, the tables there are $3 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$ and accommodate eight pupils.

In selecting chairs for the high-school library, care must be taken that they are as strong as they can be made, for the strain on them of constant use by growing adolescent pupils is great. Chairs should be chosen that will tend to create the desired sitting posture, for it is one of the health requirements that pupils be educated to sit properly, and any pupil who has a poor reading posture should be helped to correct it. In order that the room be as quiet as possible, silencers should be attached to the legs of the chairs.

"Good order is an important time saver." No matter how efficient may be the service of the school library, if there

be disorder while the service is being given, the librarian both wastes valuable time in disciplining pupils that otherwise might be utilized in giving help to the students, and also loses the respect of the school community for the library because the disorder exists.

The librarian should take it for granted that pupils prefer and profit by a purposeful attitude while in the library, and should deal with any infraction of the few rules made on that premise. Calling attention of the group as a whole to the social use of the library may be a good thing early in the year; but after that the librarian must herself respect the rights of pupils to a quiet room. Any appearance of an unsocial attitude must be called to the attention of the offending pupil privately. Librarians find the matter of discipline one of the most trying elements they have to contend with in the school work. So do the teachers, but since it has been a school condition for a long time, as was also true in the case of attendance records, teachers have worked out devices for handling discipline, and have relegated it to the kingdom of detail where it belongs. Once the librarian gains the school point of view, she will see that discipline in the library is as necessary to the carrying on of her work as it is for the teachers, and will work out the routine details which fit her situation.

There is a direct relation between furniture and equipment in the library and discipline. The size of the tables, the width of the aisles, and the placing of the book shelves will all affect the behavior of the pupils. Even the small and unimportant details of library procedure will affect what the pupils do. If all such details are attended to before the pupils arrive, so that no delay in serving them is occasioned, the librarian will be able, without delay, to give the pupils the material that they need for work. A busy pupil is a well-behaved pupil. Having all material ready for the pupil in advance gives the librarian time for the

actual library work with the children that justifies the existence of the library in the school, and lessens the possibility of wrong attitudes on the part of the pupil.

In the training of pupils in secondary schools, an effort is made to create the right sort of attitude toward themselves and others. Points of view that tend to be socially undesirable, unwholesome, and abnormal are replaced by those that are wholesome and normal. The library must not only coöperate with this part of the school's task, but must build up a library situation that will create in the pupils a desire for the higher and finer things in life. It is in the book collection that the choice of standards will be evident. The school library has a great responsibility for the type of books on its shelves. Books have as much power for evil as for good. Any book that has a tendency to upset the normal development of the adolescent child is evil for him, although it may be a valuable picture of realistic life that would not harm the adult. That does not necessarily mean that a mid-Victorian standard of choice is to be followed. It only means that books that will contribute to wholesome nervous development are more suited for their maturity, and that there is no place in the school-library collection for vicious books, for "gutter" or sex literature, no matter how prominent the author of such books may be. From the positive side, the library collection should be made up of the best books of the past and the present that will contribute directly and indirectly to the objectives of secondary education, and that will help to form the characters and ideals of high-school children. The inspiration that pupils can get from books that are universal in their theme, well written, and of the stuff their dreams and aspirations are made of, cannot be overestimated.

The book collection in the school library should be a reflection of the course of study in the school and should show the stress in the teaching procedure. But important as

is this service that the school library performs, from the point of view of the objectives of secondary education, the books that the library should contain for the pleasure reading of the pupils are of even more vital importance because of the part they play in giving the student training for worthy leisure. Nowhere else in the school is there the opportunity for developing the reading habit on the play level that is afforded by the school library. The library collection should contain some books that are included for no other reason except that they give wholesome pleasure, and will contribute to the formation of a reading habit that will carry over into adult life. It is a laudable aim to furnish the right kind of recreational reading.

An important consideration in building up the school-library collection of books is the wide variation in the reading ability and comprehension of high-school pupils. Some provision should be made for the pupils who find reading hard, and for those who have an average of comprehension below that of the average of the group. As a rule, the books that we expect pupils to read are too hard, especially for pleasure reading. A pupil will wade laboriously through a reference in his lesson assignment because he must, but he will not read books of the same degree of difficulty of subject matter and treatment for the pleasure of the thing. In all school-library collections, then, there must be still easier material for those who have not yet fully mastered the mechanics of reading.

The size of the school-library book collection will depend on the size of the school, the community in which the school is located, and the place of the library in the organization of the school. Necessarily the methods of teaching will determine in large measure how much the library is used as an adjunct of the classroom. It is safe to say that the book collection will be made adequate when the need of the service supplied by the library is recognized by the particu-

lar school. As a rule, school administrators have a way of getting funds for what they think they really need.

The "make-up" of the library collection should contain approximately the following types of material:

1. *Factual*

General reference books

Books to enrich the subject matter taught

Books to satisfy intellectual curiosity

2. *Imaginative literature*

Books to be used in connection with courses

Books for pleasure reading in the library, and for home use

3. *Visual-aid material*

To be used in connection with classroom procedure

For library use as an aid to reference work

4. *Periodical literature*

To be used in connection with courses in the school

For pleasure reading in the library

Bound copies of periodicals to be used for reference work

The proportion of these four types of material will vary greatly in different schools. There are four prevailing theories concerning the expenditure of the book fund:

1. The number of books for each subject should be in accordance with the number of pupils registered in that subject.

2. Books should be bought on a percentage basis for each subject without regard to the number of pupils taking the subject, for example, 10 per cent of the book fund to be expended on science books, etc.

3. The departments using the most books should receive the most books.

4. Provision should be made only for books that enrich the subject matter taught. There should be only a general library collection.

These theories held by various schools do not take into consideration some of the fundamental principles of book supply in relation to use. For some departments, as, for

instance, English and history, the school library serves as the laboratory. This is a primary use of the school library. For such departments as science, home economics, and the manual arts, the library is a secondary source of material; each of these has a laboratory other than the library. Whether the school library is to be the primary or the secondary source of material for a course will affect the use of the library by the students in that course, and therefore the number of library books needed by that department.

Another factor to be considered in the distribution of the kinds of books in the library is whether a course is being newly built up or whether it is being merely maintained. A new course will require a large initial order of books, while the collection of books for a course already developed will need comparatively few additions to keep the collection up to date and alive.

The amount of available material in any subject which can be used by high-school students will necessarily determine the number and kind of books purchased for that subject. The number of books on mathematics, for instance, that can be understood by high-school pupils, aside from actual texts, is limited. To order books for that department in proportion to the number of pupils enrolled in the school would be a waste of the library funds. Formerly there were few science books suitable for high-school needs, but this situation has recently been changed. At the present time there is a wealth of science material that is valuable both for secondary material in the classroom and for pleasure reading. It is, therefore, now possible to buy more books for the science department.

The ideal in the distribution of a book collection is to have a well-balanced library. The departments that use the library for primary use must necessarily have the greatest number of books; but all departments should have some

books, and they should be stimulated to want and use even more. The test of an efficient school library is the number of classroom teachers who use library material, and the growth in the number and kind of demands made on the library book collection. From the library point of view, the goal in forming a library collection should be to have live books that give a connected view of all cultures and civilizations, all peoples, arts, and sciences. A book collection that is chosen for its universal significance is an antidote to provincialism, snobbishness, and intolerance. Such a collection, if suited to high-school level, is of vast educational value to the children who have access to it. The effect is vital and lasting.

Book orders are handled in many different ways in different schools. In some schools, the librarian orders the books, including in the book order the requests sent in by teachers. There are other schools where the principal orders the books at the suggestion of the librarian and the teachers. Books are ordered only once a year in some schools; in others frequent book orders are the rule. An effective way of handling book orders is to have a library committee composed of the heads of departments and the librarian. Book orders are sent in by the teachers and by the librarian, the distribution of the book fund being made in the light of the needs of the school as a whole. The librarian checks each item in order to ascertain the value of the book to the library collection as a whole, for unnecessary duplication, for suitability, and for level of difficulty. The library committee meets every month, and the books can be ordered frequently. Thus the demands for books can be met almost immediately, and there is no long waiting for material that the teacher needs to carry on her work. This type of book-order committee is valuable because all interests in the school are represented on it, and because it builds up closer coöperation of those in-

terested in the one element of the school situation that is necessary to all of them—the library.

Thousands of books are published each year, some good, some mediocre, and some poor. The choosing of the right book for the purpose for which it is ordered, and for the level which the school library needs is a serious problem. Every book that does not serve the use desired for it is at least a partial if not a total loss. How to choose from the mass of material so that the book collection will be both well balanced and of high quality is a matter that requires the best judgment of the librarian. Advertisements cannot be wholly depended upon for opinions regarding books, since they are written with the prime purpose of selling the book. The following adjectives that were used to describe a single book will give some idea of the generally untrustworthy tendencies of the writers of book advertisements—"dramatic," "fascinating," "picturesque," "colorful," "masterly," "notable," "brilliant," "enlightening," "complete," "interesting," "delightful," "graphic," "charming," "alive," "absorbing," "exquisite." With all the adjectives, one knows as little about the book as one did in the beginning. Nor can one depend on the salesmen in the bookstores, for they rarely know the books they sell, and they certainly do not know the school needs.

The magazines that review the new books do not furnish much help in ordering books for the school library, for they are not particularly interested in books at the high-school level. The great drawback to book reviews is the vague language in which they are written, and the evident bias which reviewers seem to have. Some laud to the skies *risqué* themes and situations, others praise highly the more unconventional literary forms, and still others applaud books that are reactionary on social and economic matters.

It is not safe to order books merely from the title.

There are surprises in store for one who does so. *Men of Iron*, for example, has nothing to do with the iron and steel industry, for which it was ordered by a teacher who had faith in titles. Nor is it safe to order from the reputation of an author even if one is familiar with most of that author's books. One teacher found this out when he ordered *Sisters*, by Kathleen Norris, assuming, because of his familiarity with *Mother* by the same author, that this was a book of the same type. But to his dismay, he found out afterwards that *Sisters* was a very different kind of book, wholly unsuited to children of high-school age.

There is only one safe way of knowing that the book ordered is the very best one for the purpose for which it is intended, and that is by a careful examination of the book by the one who is to use it in his work. The school librarian would do well to go to the public library frequently to look over the new books received there. If there is a good bookstore in the city, it is possible to examine books before purchasing, or before ordering the book from another source.

There are a number of good book lists that are issued by various state departments of education. But, as more than 50 per cent of the books on these lists are to be found on other book lists, they do not offer very much in the way of new or original suggestions for adolescent reading. They are made up largely of the tried and true classics, and are, as a consequence, eminently "safe." Their very conservatism, however, limits their scope. They are usually a little old, and hence contain no new material; and a school-library collection needs the really good modern books as well as the classics, if it is to fill the needs and arouse the interest of the pupils.

The most helpful and up-to-date printed aid for book selection is *The Booklist*, published by the American Library Association. *The Booklist* has a special section de-

voted to books suitable for the high school, which is, as a rule, extremely well selected. The reviews of the books in *The Booklist* are both clear and enlightening. They are fair and unbiased, and really review the book.

In selecting books for the school library, a choice in editions is possible in some cases. There are on the market a number of cheap editions of popular fiction, many of which are suitable for recreational reading. Where the book fund is limited, these special inexpensive editions make it possible to obtain a supply of interesting reading at very little cost. The books published by Grosset and Dunlap have bright, attractive covers, the paper is of fair quality, and the plates from which the books are printed are not too worn. However, the cover is machine bound, and is therefore not very strong. The selection of fiction is rather wide, but not all the books are suitable for inclusion in the school collection. Everyman's Library, published by Dutton, offers an extraordinarily well-selected list of classics, both fiction and nonfiction, but the covers of the earlier books in the series lack the brightness that attracts children; however, recent additions have covers of brighter hue. The paper is not perfectly white, and the type is too small for present-day readers. D. Appleton and Company publishes two inexpensive series, one of which, the Dollar Library, offers a wide range of copyrighted books which have stood the test of time. Masterpieces of fiction, literature, art, and science are represented. Such a book as *David Harum* is included in the series as is also *Ancient Greek Literature*. Although all the titles are not suitable for the high-school level, a wise selection will enable the librarian to add valuable material. The physical make-up of the books in the series is dignified, and therefore admirably suited to nonfiction. The Appleton Modern Literature Series is especially edited for high-school use. The titles are those found in most high-school reading lists. These

books are bound in dark green which will still look well after continual use. The paper is unglazed, white, and of acceptable quality. The type is clear and readable. Although the books are edited for classroom use, they are still attractive enough to serve for general library reading.

The Home Library Series, published by Burt, offers a good selection of popular classics. The books are bound in an attractive red. The paper is of only fair quality, and the type shows that the plates from which they were printed are worn. A recent new series of both popular and classical fiction is now being published by Macmillan under the name of the Modern Readers' Series. At present the choice of titles is limited. The books are bound in attractive blue, the paper is good, and the type is clear, but the appearance of the books is that of a glorified supplementary reader, which will detract from the use of the series for library and home reading. The Modern Student's Library, published by Scribner, is a new and inexpensive edition that is attractive in make-up. The Murray Hill Library, published by Doubleday, Doran, is an attractive edition of modern English and American novels. The titles issued thus far would be suitable for the advanced literature classes. This series offers books attractively and well bound; print that is clear, and paper that is of acceptable quality, for a very reasonable price.

In considering the purchase of any publisher's edition it is well to remember that cheap editions are not always practical, because they do not stand up well under constant use, and therefore must be rebound sooner than the more expensive regular editions. The original outlay for the cheap book plus the rebinding which must be done makes the cheap edition less economical than it would seem. Ordering the regular edition is usually an economy in the long run.

As a general rule, the latest edition of a book should

be ordered, especially in the case of nonfiction. Books of science need to be chosen for their recent copyright date, almost as much as for any other consideration, because the changing developments in science make it essential that the science books purchased be of as recent date as possible.

Illustrated editions of the classics should be a part of every library collection as soon as the library can afford it. Children find these editions very attractive, and the presence of a few such books on the shelves will encourage the reading of good literature. In the choice of the illustrated editions there are several things to be taken into consideration. The illustrations and the physical make-up of the book are both important. The illustrations should be chosen with a view to putting the pupils in contact with good art. The actual size of a book will affect its use. Many of the illustrated books are too large to be circulated for home reading. It is the practice of some school libraries to keep illustrated editions for use in the library room only. In that case the size of the book would not matter. The well-annotated, descriptive list of editions compiled by E. M. Pfitzenreuter will be found a valuable aid in selecting illustrated books.¹

The amount of duplication and the number of copies to be purchased can be determined only by taking into consideration the following elements:

1. *Value of the Material:*

Is it of permanent value?

Is the book the latest edition?

Is the book in the process of revision?

2. *Use:*

Primary or secondary

¹ Edwin M. Pfitzenreuter, "Illustrated Editions of High School Classics" (University of Illinois Library School, Urbana, Illinois, 1925).

Number of pupils in the course

Number of times the book is to be used in the course

Number of departments using the book

What degree of use

3. *Legitimate Demand. Factors to be considered:*

Time element

Short library hours—pupils of high-school age should be at home early

Social activities

Moral effect—supplying the legitimate demands as a means of character building

Supervised study affected by the number of duplicate copies

4. *Outside Reading:*

Adequate supply of books helps in the formation of the reading habit

5. *Intellectual Curiosity:*

The result of classroom stimulation requires the duplication of books

There is a great deal of overlapping in the use of books. Many books are used by more than one department. When that is the case there must be duplication. To what extent books should be duplicated is not easy to determine. There are no results available of actual experiments that take into consideration the different types of material, the factors that enter into a lesson assignment, the number of pupils, and the time element. In practice, one copy to every seven pupils may be taken as the minimum of copies needed. Duplication of books makes such a heavy drain on the book fund of the school library that great care must be taken that the material duplicated be of sufficient value to warrant the expenditure of the book fund in that manner. The duplication of books of questionable value means not only a loss of funds, but a weakening of the book collection; for their presence on the library shelves decreases the use of the library by reason of the fact that useful material might have been purchased and used in their

place. It is easily seen, then, that all requests for the order of duplicates should be carefully scrutinized.

There are two library devices that will aid in keeping down the number of duplicates. Having books on a special reserve shelf will decrease the number of copies needed for a lesson assignment. Reserve books circulate for overnight use only, are drawn from the library late in the afternoon, and are returned to the library the following morning after they are taken out, so that they are available for use in the library during the school day. Special desk reserves are effective where there is inadequate duplication, a short assignment, and a relatively small number of pupils. The books put on "Desk Reserve" are returned to the librarian's desk after the student is through with them, and the librarian is enabled thus to keep them in constant reference circulation. This device, however, though valuable, cannot take the place of adequate duplication.

In order that a school-library collection may be serviceable in the school, the librarian must continually be on the watch to eliminate out-of-date books and duplicates that are no longer in use. Shelves littered with dead material, even in a small measure, make the whole library collection less attractive for the general reader, and less representative of the curriculum in the school. Many times these books that no longer have any use take up valuable shelf space needed for new material. Besides weeding out the dead material, the librarian must keep the book collection in proper condition for use. There are many ways of prolonging the life of a book. Expert mending of books keeps books in active circulation. When mending will not answer, the book should be rebound. But only books that are worth while should be sent to the bindery. The expense of binding must be considered. If a book is very much worn, it is an economy to withdraw it from circulation and purchase a new copy in its place.

The need of organization for the books in a school library is obvious. To find a book in a small unorganized collection of books takes a long search. To find a book in a large unorganized collection is almost impossible. It would follow that unless a collection of books be available almost immediately upon demand, it will be of little value in a school library. Therefore, for the sake of promptness and accuracy of service, libraries have the books classified, catalogued, provide a charging system, and have other devices for putting the books at the disposal of the users of the library.

Classification in library science means the sorting of books so that all books on the same subject stand together on the library shelves. The Dewey Decimal Classification number is given to each book according to its subject. As the name of the classification would indicate, all human knowledge is divided into ten classes, and each class can be expanded decimally. Since there may be many books on the same subject with the same classification number, an author number is given to each book, and in this way each book in a class is differentiated from others in the same class. The author number is obtained from the Cutter Author Tables. The classification and the author number together form the "call" number of a book. As the word "call" would indicate, that is the number the book borrower uses in calling for the book, and also the one that indicates where the book is on the shelf.

Although books are given a class and an author number, unless one knew every book in the library it would be impossible to say positively whether or not a particular book was in the collection. To supply this need, books are catalogued on cards, the cards are arranged in alphabetical order, and filed in special catalogue cases. The catalogue, then, is the index to the library collection of books. It answers these three questions:

1. What has the library by a certain author?
2. Has the library a book by a certain title?
3. What has the library on a certain subject?

Besides answering these leading questions, the catalogue gives the call number, publisher of the book, the copyright date, and the edition; indicates whether or not there are maps and illustrations; gives the series to which the book belongs; and tells whether or not the book contains a bibliography.

When books have been classified and catalogued they are ready to be circulated; that is, they may be taken out by readers for certain definite periods. An easy method of facilitating this process is to provide a card and pocket for each book. The business of keeping track of books is then very simple. The reader signs the book card or the librarian writes the borrower's library-card number on the book card. The book card is left in the library as a record and is filed in the charging tray. In public libraries and in many school libraries each book borrower has a numbered, nontransferable borrower's card. The librarian writes the book borrower's number on the book card and keeps the book card in a file until the book is returned. Thus, when a book is in the library, the book card is in the book; when it is in circulation, the book card is in the library charging file.

Important as it is to get books to the reader, it is equally important to have books returned so that they may be issued to other readers. That is why the process of lending books is called circulation. In order that books be returned in a reasonable length of time, there should be a period of time that borrowers may keep a book. The system of fines for overdue books is a device for getting the books returned in a reasonable time so that they may be available for other readers who may wish to use them. In all public libraries this system of fines for overdue books prevails. In most

high-school libraries, it has been found necessary to charge fines for overdue books in order to keep the books in circulation instead of having them repose in the pupils' lockers. However, it is recognized that charging a nominal sum for each day the book is kept after it should be returned, is not a logical punishment for the crime. A few high-school libraries have dispensed entirely with the system of fines, and have undertaken a systematic training in the social use of the books. In the libraries in which it has been possible to train pupils that keeping books overtime deprives other pupils of their use, the cases of late return of books are relatively rare, even though no fines are charged.

In the school library the rules for the circulation of books should not be rigid. Allowance must be made for the irregular but yet legitimate demands made by teachers and pupils. The classroom situation may call at times for a use of the library and library material that will not conform with library rules; or perhaps the conditions under which pupils must carry out classroom assignments will not always come under the existing library rules. Rules in the high-school library should be as few as possible, should be plastic, and should not be considered as sacred as the laws of the Medes and the Persians. If red tape interferes with the best interests of the teachers and pupils who are to use the library, the librarian should get rid of the red tape.

The library technical devices, too, must be scrutinized so that only those will be retained that contribute directly to the objectives of the library in education. Certain devices are absolutely essential; and these must be accurately and consistently carried out if the library is to give quick and accurate service. But it must be clear to the librarian that these devices are mere matters of routine, designed to make the wheels of the library run smoothly. The details of school organization and administration should be care-

fully planned with a view to reducing the mechanical and routine work of the library to a semblance of habit. This will free the librarian for the more important work of helping the school educate the pupils.

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CHAPTER IV

THE SCHOOL LIBRARIAN AND HER WORK

Important as it is to establish favorable physical conditions under which the library is to function, the choice of the person who is to administer the library should demand much more careful attention than any adjustment of material details. For, in the last analysis, the library is rather an accurate reflection of the capacity and personality of the librarian in charge. Under her direction the library service becomes just as effective—or just as weak, as the case may be—as she is capable of making it. A skillful librarian will be able to create an important place for the library in the life of the school, no matter what handicaps confront her. Just as in many schools the splendid corps of teachers compensates for the lack of adequate buildings and equipment, so the presence in the library of a well-trained, capable person will compensate, in some degree, for any lack of library equipment. Given the most favorable conditions for her work, such a librarian will be able to carry out the objectives of library service to their fullest extent, and will give the library its rightful place in the educational system as the indispensable aid to teachers and students alike.

A good school librarian should in general possess the same personal qualities that are to be sought in a successful teacher: loyalty, tact, a sense of humor, initiative, enthusiasm, sincerity, patience, kindness, ability to discipline, and a spirit of fairness. But the librarian, even more than the teacher, must be systematic, accurate, and orderly, and

must possess a sense of proportion, in order that she may be able to evaluate the relative importance of the various parts of her work, and not spend too much time on certain details, at the expense of others. The technical side of library work can, if the librarian is not watchful, become an all-absorbing interest. Lacking a sense of balance, the school librarian may become so engrossed in the details of working out elaborate cataloguing systems, statistical tables, and so forth, that she will lose sight of the true significance of the school library, and will expend on the routine affairs of the library the energy and attention which she might far better be putting into actual work with teachers and pupils.

The background of the school librarian is of the utmost importance. Since she is to be called upon to furnish information on every conceivable subject, she must have a large fund of general information. In a school librarian, specialization is not as desirable as is a broad catholic taste, which results from the cultivation of varied intellectual interests. It would seem unnecessary to say that one who hopes to interest others in books must first know and love them herself. The high-school pupil can, more often than not, be started out on the pursuit of new hobbies, new matters for investigation, by some book that the librarian has suggested to him. This suggestion may take different forms: Sometimes the librarian will be called upon merely to give the child a few suggestive titles, books by a certain author of whom the student is fond, and so forth; often she will have to sketch briefly the outlines of various books, in order that the student may get some idea of which one he wishes to read first; and very often the librarian must find out from the child his special interests, suggest books that will appeal to any or all of those interests, or introduce to the pupil entirely new lines of thought, and books that will feed his newly-aroused intellectual curiosity.

Hence it can be readily seen that the school librarian, to be successful, must not only have read widely before she begins her work; she must read even more far afield while connected with the school library. She must at all times be familiar with new ideas and new trends of thought that are current in the world, and be able to suggest books that discuss them. She must know the works of the most recent, as well as the oldest writers, and be able to criticize them soundly and intelligently, so that the users of her library will be able to feel that they may rely upon her judgment and taste.

Academic requirements for teachers in secondary schools have by now become thoroughly standardized, though these standards are constantly being raised. There have been unsuccessful attempts made to establish similar standard requirements for school librarians; but, though there is current a certain pattern idea of what such a position calls for, up to the present time there are no definite requirements that are demanded by all schools. It is certainly not too much to expect that the person who is to be the library adviser for both faculty and students should have at least the same academic preparation that the teachers in her school possess. In addition, the librarian should have technical library training; for without that, she will not be able to administer the library as efficiently as otherwise, and will, as a consequence, be restricted in her efforts to give the very best possible library service.

Wide experience of various sorts is of inestimable value to the school librarian. Successful teaching experience enables her to see the problem of the teacher as it relates to the library, and also to see the reactions of the child, in the classroom, to the books he has found in the library. Such a background of knowledge will be of great value to the librarian in the organization of her course on the use of books and libraries. Public-library experience, too, is

of great benefit to the school librarian, for it gives her a knowledge of the tastes and demands of the reading public that a school library will not always offer.

In no other profession is the possession of physical vitality of more importance than in school-library work. The long hours which the librarian must serve, the physical labor involved in handling the large number of books that are used in the school library each day require that she should be physically strong. And as is also true in the teaching profession, the nervous strain of serving so many people each day, of receiving the impact of so many and such varied types of personalities makes it absolutely essential that the librarian should have a well-balanced nervous system. The general physical appearance of the librarian should be one that invites confidence and respect. A grim, forbidding countenance will keep her patrons at a distance and will limit the extent of her service to them, for they will not come for help to one whose appearance does not invite approach. The librarian who radiates helpfulness and kindness, broad human sympathy and knowledge of human nature, tempered with professional dignity, is the type of person best fitted to administer a school library. The voice of the librarian, too, is another detail that is more important than it seems at first thought. A clear, firm, well-modulated voice gives an impression of strength and assurance that will help the librarian to maintain the right sort of discipline in the library and to give pupils and teachers the requisite confidence in her ability to serve them satisfactorily.

One strong conviction the school librarian must possess: She must feel a positive belief in "the mission of the book," and in the indispensability of the library facilities, for the fullest realization of the objectives of secondary education. Even though her work is not recognized in any of the units of credit which the pupil receives, nevertheless, if

she is alive to the possibilities of her position, the librarian will be able to give personal service to every member of the school community, and to influence the pupils in all their academic and social relationships.

Because the service of the school library is that of unifying instruction rather than of specialization, and because of the consequent heterogeneous task which the librarian must undertake, it is very difficult to make any exact statement as to what the librarian really does. As far as her actual personal service to the school is concerned, she is the book specialist for all departments, the auxiliary for every classroom in the school; the guide for recreational reading; the personnel worker in the matter of giving vocational advice; the supervisor of lesson-getting; the dispenser of facts and information. But before she can start on these tasks, any one of which seems almost large enough in itself for one person, she must first get in readiness the books, magazines, pamphlets, newspapers, and pictures that will be needed in both classrooms and library. In order to measure up to all the demands that are likely to be made upon her, the school librarian must be at once an executive, organizer, administrator, personnel worker, teacher and librarian. No small order for any one person to fill!

The following analysis of the school librarian's work was compiled under the direction of Franklin W. Johnson of Teachers College, Columbia University. This analysis is valuable chiefly in that it shows the many details that must be considered in the organization and administration of a library that is to function efficiently in the school. It further indicates clearly what contributions to secondary education are to be expected from the high-school library.

ANALYSIS OF THE DUTIES OF A SCHOOL LIBRARIAN

I. *Preliminary:*

1. Impressing superintendent and school board with importance of the library
2. Obtaining appropriation for librarian's salary
3. Selecting candidate for librarian
4. Obtaining appointment of librarian
5. Planning space for library purposes in new building
6. Adapting space not intended for library purposes in old building
7. Estimating shelving and seating capacity
8. Planning arrangement of equipment
9. Listing supplies and equipment needed
10. Obtaining prices on supplies and equipment
11. Obtaining funds for initial supplies and equipment
12. Ordering supplies and equipment
13. Unpacking supplies and equipment
14. Checking supplies and equipment against invoice
15. Placing built-in equipment
16. Placing movable equipment

II. *Financial:*

1. Obtaining annual appropriation for books, periodicals, and special materials
2. Obtaining additional funds, if needed, from other sources
3. Making budget for apportionment of funds for general purposes and for each department
4. Accounting for all money allotted to the use of the library
5. Assessment and collection of fines

III. *Selection and Purchase of Books, Periodicals, and Special Materials:*

1. Obtaining publishers' lists
2. Examining publications of the American Library Association, H. W. Wilson Company, and other publishers of library material
3. Examining lists of publications of state and federal governments

4. Obtaining suggestions for purchase from teachers
5. Reading book notes and reviews
6. Making lists of books, periodicals, and special materials of value in the work of each department
7. Making lists of general references, books, periodicals, and so forth
8. Selecting from these lists books, periodicals, and special material that are most needed and that can be purchased with funds available
9. Making out orders for purchase
10. Obtaining necessary requisitions for purchase
11. Unpacking material when received
12. Checking material received with invoice
13. Approving payment of bills
14. Arranging for borrowing material from other libraries
15. Receiving and caring for borrowed material
16. Returning borrowed material

IV. *Putting Book Stock in Shape for Use:*

1. Mechanical preparation of books
 - (a) Opening all books properly
 - (b) Cutting leaves
 - (c) Stamping library name in new books
 - (d) Pasting pockets and date slips in new books
 - (e) Placing bookplates in new books
2. Classifying and cataloguing
 - (a) Classifying all books
 - (b) Accessioning new books
 - (c) Assigning author numbers
 - (d) Cataloguing all books
 - (e) Shelf-listing all books
 - (f) Writing book cards for all books
 - (g) Marking new books
 - (h) Placing book cards in new books
 - (i) Filing catalogue cards
 - (j) Filing shelf-list cards
3. Arranging shelves and files
 - (a) Placing books on shelves

- (b) Placing guides on shelves
- (c) Placing periodicals in binders on magazine rack
- (d) Arranging reference books
- (e) Weeding out and disposing of books and other material no longer useful
- (f) Reshelving books when necessary
- (g) Clipping papers and magazines and filing clippings for convenient use
- (h) Filing pictures and pamphlets for convenient use
- (i) Cataloguing and keeping available such other material as lantern slides, victrola records, and so forth

V. *Loan System:*

1. Drawing up regulations for use and issuance of books and other material
2. Arrangement of loan desk
3. Issuing and charging books and other material
4. Checking and return of books and other material

VI. *Care of Book Stock:*

1. Periodic inspection of books and magazines
2. Minor repair of damaged books and periodicals
3. Removal of books requiring more extensive repair
4. Preparing worn books for rebinding
5. Preparing periodicals for binding
6. Ordering binding of books and magazines
7. Packing and shipping such books to bindery
8. Unpacking, checking, and restoring to shelves rebound books
9. Making annual inventory of all books and equipment, showing losses, accessions, and total number of books, periodicals, and other material

VII. *Care of Library Rooms:*

1. Keeping chairs and other furniture properly placed
2. Keeping the librarian's desk cleared
3. Keeping tables cleared of books and material not in use

4. Putting books back on the shelves in proper order
5. Keeping bulletin board up-to-date
6. Providing for flowers and plants
7. Caring for these decorations
8. Providing and arranging appropriate pictures, casts, and so forth

VIII. *Routine Management:*

1. Drawing up rules of conduct
2. Checking attendance
3. Reporting attendance
4. Keeping serviceable records of numbers using library, material used, and so forth
5. Answering correspondence
6. Dating and alphabetizing circulation cards
7. Stamping printed forms needed for the day
8. Attention to light and ventilation
9. Making periodical reports to principal regarding the service of the library and its possible extension
10. Taking care of visitors
11. Notifying holders of overdue books

IX. *Encouragement of Reading:*

1. Examining new books, periodicals, and materials as they are received, to determine content and its special significance
2. Preparing lists of books and articles of special interest to teachers and pupils, including holiday lists, gift lists, vacation reading lists, lists of references on special topics, and the like
3. Preparing bulletin-board notices designed to attract attention to new materials of value
4. Suggesting specific reading to pupils who need guidance or assistance
5. Preparing accounts of new books or articles for the school paper
6. Preparing bulletin-board exhibits of special interest, with suggestions for supplementary reading
7. Suggesting reading in connection with pictures, flow-

ers, or other decorations—temporary or permanent
—of the library room

8. Providing especially attractive books and pictures along lines of pupils' interests
9. Arranging displays of pictures, rare or new books, and materials or books of special interest
10. Forming and supervising committees of pupils to aid in the conduct of the library—in acquiring new materials, caring for materials, managing library routine, providing decorations, providing bulletin-board exhibits, and the like
11. Planning and carrying out special assembly programs dealing with books, authors, and so forth
12. Conducting visits to other libraries
13. Making daily newspaper clippings for bulletin board
14. Giving references to books not in library
15. Making available material for public speaking and debating teams
16. Making pupils familiar with other libraries in the community
17. Observing Book Week by appropriate exhibits
18. Taking advantage of the hobbies of pupils to increase their reading
19. Taking advantage of vocational interests of pupils to increase their reading
20. Working with pupils on special classroom projects
21. Selecting attractive books for browsing corner

X. *Coöperation with Teachers:*

1. Calling the attention of teachers to books, articles, or materials of special value in their work, either through individual notices or through bulletin-board announcements (preferably the former)
2. Forming committees of teachers to aid in the conduct of the library—in formulating library rules, selecting new materials, suggesting methods for classroom use of library materials, and the like
3. Preparing lantern slides for use of teachers
4. Preparing groups of miscellaneous materials—pic-

tures, pamphlets, and the like—for special use by teachers

5. Arranging for temporary loans of books to special classrooms, if these cannot be adequately used in the library classroom
6. Seeking and reporting special information requested by teachers, especially that concerning sources of valuable material
7. Conferring with teachers about the reading of individual pupils
8. Making special book lists for teachers
9. Preparing material for classroom bulletin boards
10. Preparing and sending units of books to classrooms
11. Reserving books for special courses
12. Making the library function as a centralizing agency in the administration and instruction of the school

XI. *Assisting Pupils in the Use of Books:*

1. Maintaining appropriate conformity with library rules
2. Discussing with groups of pupils desirable and effective methods of study
3. Observing and analyzing the study methods of individuals
4. Suggesting better methods of study to individuals who have formed ineffective study habits; encouraging them to practice these better methods
5. Reporting to teachers or principal, as desirable, upon study habits of individual pupils
6. Giving instruction to groups of pupils in the general make-up and use of books
7. Giving instruction to groups of pupils in the use of special types of books—encyclopedias, periodical indexes, and the like
8. Giving instruction to groups of pupils in the use of general library facilities—card catalogues, withdrawal privileges, exhibits, and special materials
9. Aiding individual pupils in their use of books and of the library as a whole

10. Instructing pupils how to read, how to skim, how to take notes
11. Studying the special interests and needs of pupils with a view to meeting these through library material
12. Assisting pupils in individual projects.
13. Helping pupils to plan and organize their work
14. Teaching pupils how to make a bibliography

XII. *Professional Advancement of the Librarian:*

1. Studying the general aims and functions of the secondary school as a means of determining further contributions which the library can make
2. Studying the specific aims and functions of the school for the same purpose
3. Visiting classrooms to determine more definitely the specific ways in which the library may be of assistance
4. Forming associations with pupils in extracurricular and out-of-school activities, for a like purpose
5. Visiting other schools and other libraries to gain valuable suggestions as to the work which a library may do
6. Reading current articles upon general and special library work
7. Attending summer or part-time courses in library work
8. Attending summer or part-time courses in secondary education
9. Working occasionally in a public library during summer vacation
10. Attending and participating in professional meetings
11. Preparing library exhibits for professional meetings
12. Attending faculty and department meetings
13. Taking part in the experiments carried on in the school
14. Keeping in touch with all types of literature in order to be an authority on books

15. Writing articles for professional journals
16. Taking a vital interest in the home life of the pupils and in the life of the community.¹

Wherever the size of the school budget makes it possible, some provision should be made in the school library for securing a worker who will carry on the mechanical and routine work of the library and leave the librarian free to work directly with teachers and pupils. It is a short-sighted policy on the part of the school administration to make the librarian use the major part of her time doing work that requires no special skill or training; for the greater the number of routine tasks she has to perform, the less time she will have to do really valuable educational work in the school.

Small schools that employ only one librarian often have an arrangement whereby the principal's secretary performs the routine clerical work of the library, provided, of course, her own secretarial load is not already too heavy. Other schools have one part-time assistant, while others use student help. The task of training and supervising student assistants is so great, however, that it is not an especially practicable plan.

Obviously the most desirable solution is to have a full-time trained assistant who can take care of details of circulation, look after books and periodicals, and so forth, while the librarian gives her time to enlarging the educational program of the library.

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CHAPTER V

THE HIGH SCHOOL PUPIL

It must never be forgotten by administrator, teacher, or librarian, that the important factor in the school situation is the child himself, that the elaborate systems of mental tests, supervised study, personnel work, and so forth, that have been built up were devised not for the sake of the schemes themselves, or to display the ingenuity of the person making them, but really to help the children in the school develop into as capable and intelligent members of their community as possible. Similarly, all methods of library organization and administration should be viewed in the light of what they will contribute to the attitudes and standards of the boys and girls who make up the high school population. Hence it will be readily seen that the librarian, in order to adapt the work of the library to the needs of the students, must have an understanding of the psychology of high-school children.

One of the factors that makes the study of high-school pupils so difficult, and yet so interesting, is the utter impossibility of establishing any set standard for the reactions of any group of children, or, indeed, for any one child at different times. It is wrong to limit the period of adolescence to the high-school age. Children in high school range usually from twelve to nineteen years of age; and some of them have, even in the elementary and junior high school, experienced the physical and psychological changes of adolescence, with their consequent necessary adjustments, while others do not undergo these changes for some

years after they have entered high school, while still others have matured into young womanhood and manhood. There is, then, a vast difference in maturity and point of view, not only between children of different age-and-grade groups, but also between children of the same years, and the same apparent mental advancement. Nature never made a standard human being, though she did establish in most people some approximation toward the norm, which makes it possible for us to know in a general way what to expect of certain groups and certain types of people. To be most successful with children, however, one must treat the development of each child as a separate unit.

Once the child and his problems are isolated from those of the age group to which he seems to belong, the educator can begin studying the factors that make him different from the other children with whom he associates. For although, generally speaking, the psychological considerations that apply to all human life may be present in every child, they are there in such widely varying proportions and are so modified by his racial and family inheritance and his environment that no one case can be considered altogether typical.

An examination of the reactions of children will be helpful only as a starting point toward the understanding of a particular child; but they cannot be considered constants in the problem, for they vary with the individual. Certain reactions are controlled by the will, and others by habit, while still others are a result of instinct and emotions. It is very important for the educator to understand these instinctive and emotional reactions in youth; for it is his task to help the child stabilize his vague, confused, unorganized emotions and instincts by proper direction of his mental life.

When the child reaches high school he already has a set of habits well established. The home, the school, the

church, the public and school library, his neighbors and friends have all had a hand in forming his new habits and breaking those that he has discarded. He has by experience found that certain habits were unserviceable, because they did not help him to adapt himself more easily to his environment, while others were eminently useful because they did function for that purpose. The process of eliminating unsatisfactory habits and of acquiring serviceable ones goes on constantly, and modifies his instinctive and emotional reactions to a considerable extent.

From his experience in the elementary and junior high school, in the home and the library, and through the newspaper and the motion pictures, the child has built up a large body of general and particular information before he enters high school. His social intercourse with other children and with more mature people has enabled him to form standards of behavior to modify his opinions and judgments to fit the different situations that he meets in the course of his daily life. Thus it is seen that the child begins early to act as a result of reflective thinking, rather than relying entirely upon instinct or impulse.

The complex activities of human life are too many and too varied to be fully classified; few are found singly; most are in combination. Hereditary and environmental factors must be considered in every case; but in no two persons are they exactly alike. As has been said before, it is because there are so many variations possible in human life that no inflexible standard can be set up for human beings. Each of us has a distinct personality. Long before children reach the high-school age they have become widely differentiated from each other as to personal appearance and mental and physical capacity. Furthermore, each child at an early age becomes conscious of himself as a personality, as differing from his associates.

The librarian who, for the first time, sees a group of

students coming to her for library service is not always aware of the strong individuality of the different members of the group. To her at first they seem only a number of boys and girls. Then gradually she sees them as large boys and small boys, large girls and small girls, young children and older youths. Little by little, as her knowledge of the group increases, individuals will stand out, until each name is associated in her mind with a certain physical make-up and a certain type of behavior. This gradual unfolding of individual personalities to the teacher or librarian in charge of them is very well expressed in the words of Virginia Church:

INDIVIDUALITY

On the first day of school
They pour into their seats,
Little nonentities,
All frowsy,
All the same,
Like so much batter in cake-rings.
Then they begin to rise,
Each reveals a separate sweetness and a worth
All his own.

Just as each person's behavior is different from that of any one else, so it differs from its usual state in various situations and with various people. Thus, for example, a child may seem two different individuals in his English class and his algebra class, or with different friends or teachers. Conditions within and without the human organism are constantly changing, and the personality changes in order to make the necessary adaptations to the new situation. Grown-ups are more consistent than children because they have mastered their instincts to some extent, and have rationalized their responses. But children have yet to master themselves. They are in their formative

period, and are open to suggestions and adjustments. That, of course, is the only reason for the effectiveness of most educational systems; namely, because youth does possess a receptive mind, a plastic nervous system, an inborn curiosity that experience has not dulled, a power of observation that is still fresh, and a willingness to change early attitudes and standards in favor of new ones.

The child of high-school age does not act rationally at all times, any more than do adults. Children are swayed by emotions, moods, and feelings, and by their reactions to their physical environment. They act at times from instinct, from habit, or from reflection, and sometimes from a combination of these influences. No wonder, then, that they seem at times to be full of extremes and inconsistencies.

There are obvious differences in the physical growth of adolescent children. And that many mental disturbances are caused by the physical changes that they are undergoing is evidenced by the unsatisfactory physical and mental adjustment of many children. Fortunately, relatively few children fail to adjust themselves fairly well. Those pupils who are emotionally stable "come through" successfully. Some others are not quite so stable, yet with careful guidance they do succeed in working out some methods of behavior to fit themselves to their environment. It is only a comparatively small number of high-school students who are so swayed by conflicting, uncontrolled emotions, desires and fears, that they are unable to effect any adjustment of their mental lives to the everyday situations that face them.

Growing children take themselves seriously. If it were only better known, the seeming happiness of high-school children is not always real. Too often the movement, the restlessness and boisterous noise which their elders look upon as the outpouring of happy animal spirits is but the

cloak for feelings anything but gay. Often such demonstrations cover up embarrassment, lack of poise, shyness, and the feeling of inferiority and inadequacy. The following list of aspirations and responsibilities common to all pupils of high-school age will show that, in spite of the seeming irresponsibility of the high-school youth, he does have something to think about and worry over:

1. Desire of every one to take care of himself and be economically independent.
2. Desire to produce or create something, coupled with the desire to be rewarded for one's creation.
3. Aspiration to be strong physically, and to have complete control of one's faculties.
4. Instinctive desire for offspring.
5. Fundamental human desire for leisure.
6. Desire for a good name among one's fellows in a social group.¹

Many pupils in the upper classes worry about their vocational future. For others, the fact that their ideal world will not square up with the realities they observe is a source of sorrow. Others still are disturbed by the fact that cause and effect does not always follow in the social world, although it invariably follows in the physical world. The prolonged childhood makes pupils dissatisfied. They must be in leading strings, under direction and supervision, dependent on parents, long after they feel they have outgrown their childhood. School, too, does not at times come up to their expectations, in so far as preparation for life is concerned. It is life they want, not preparation for life. Many pupils find school utterly unsuited to their needs. They cannot adapt themselves to the routine that the school requires, and are therefore relegated to the great group of "misfits" in our school system.

¹ Margaret M. Alltucker, *School Review*, Vol. 21, November, 1923, pp. 653-661.

Although children of high-school age seemingly conform to the requirements laid down at home and at school, they have their own private opinions about both. Family loyalty is strong, but that does not keep the child from "sizing up" mother and father, and making a mental note of his or her reactions. These reactions color the relationship of the child toward his parents, and determine in large measure his attitudes and standards of behavior at home. Pupils in high school size up their teachers in the same way, and act accordingly. Sometimes they are mistaken and must go through the stage of revaluation, but as a general rule they are fairly accurate in their judgment of character. The school system, too, comes in for their analysis. Children have always been given the impression that success in school means success in life, and therefore the subjects studied in school will give them training which they will need later. As a general proposition, they feel it may be true, but it does not always fit in with their observation of what actually happens. Therefore they come to look upon education and intelligence as two things. Intelligence need not necessarily be the result of education; it may be manual, creative, scientific or social, and the like. Failure in academic pursuits is unpleasant because parents and teachers lay stress upon it; but it does not necessarily mean that it will really affect their success in life. Older people realize this, though they do not always say it; but to the child brought up to believe firmly in the necessity of education as a preparation for a successful life, his new discoveries concerning the true relationships of academic education and real living come as a distinct shock.

From the observation of thousands of pupils it has been found that some outstanding manifestations in the attitudes of children of high-school age are:

Broadening of Interests. For boys this takes the form of interest in world affairs and problems. For girls, who are the con-

servers, the interest becomes more centered on the home and the family.

Altruism. An enthusiasm for causes that are idealistic. They wish to make the world a better place to live in.

Reaching Out for New Experiences. They see the possibilities of a rich and full life, are eager to live it. They are not only interested in the experiences for themselves, but are eager also to know those of others.

Social Interest. Because they have reached the age of interest in the opposite sex, social life takes on instinctive intensity. This with the group instinct which is inherent in all human beings, makes success in social relationship, be it acquaintance, friendship or love, take precedence over all other things.

Fear of Being Ridiculous. Fear exists in all of us, in a variety of forms. The pupil of high-school age is not exempt from it; though the fear that looms largest in his eyes is the dread of appearing ridiculous to his associates. He is thrown into a panic of confusion and dread by any situation, however harmless, that exposes him to the raillery of his friends. Likewise, sarcasm leveled at him by a teacher is never forgotten or forgiven.

Desire for the Good Opinion of His Fellows. To a child of high-school age, the opinions of his youthful companions are of far more importance than those of his elders. This is, of course, due to the fact that he and his friends have common interests and mutual understanding, which makes the interchange of ideas and opinions between them a much easier matter than between them and their parents or teachers, who, they feel, cannot fully understand their point of view.

Ideals. The ideals of the high-school pupil are not wholly formulated. Many of them he experiences rather than thinks out; they are the products of his emotions rather than of his reason. Very often he finds that there is lack of harmony between his interests and his ideals, that his ideals will not function in certain situations where his interests are at stake. On the other hand, the fearlessness and uncalculating qualities of youth will often lead him to follow the promptings of his ideals, to the entire disregard of his own interests. His ideals, though vague, are precious to him. Using them as standards of judgment he builds up within his own

mind a moral code that is often far more ethical than any precepts his elders may impress upon his mind from without.

Imitation. Pupils of high-school age have not outgrown the tendency to imitate. They will do things just because others do them, and will do them in the same way.

Leadership. Naturally all pupils would like to be leaders, but not every one has the natural gift for leadership. That does not deter false leaders from passing for the real thing. As a rule they have confidence, a ready flow of language, a "glad hand," and a stock of what in slang is called "nerve." In order that there may be leaders there must be followers. In all schools there is an overwhelmingly large group who take their place as followers as an assured thing.

Capacities of pupils differ widely in kind and in degree, some because of native endowment and some because of training. The broad, general terms "intellectual" and "motor" minded do not classify closely enough for scientific purposes the pupils whom they are supposed to represent. These terms leave out entirely any consideration of the pupils who have creative ability in some particular line. The special gifts, talents, and skills that pupils possess are precious things, which will enable the possessor to lead a rich life, and whose ability is what the world needs. Art, music, and literature are not the only special creative gifts. Types of manipulation that would be desirable in the useful arts and sciences, the orderliness that is requisite for certain types of business, the good taste that is utilized in the selection of textiles, the manual dexterity that is necessary in manufacturing processes, and the sense of values that goes into the professions—all these qualities are gifts for the possessor, and their presence should be noted and encouraged in the pupil. Were this done in secondary school, there would be a noticeable decrease in the misfits in business, industry, and the professions. Very often genius is not recognized. Darwin in his autobiography tells us that

he was considered a very dull pupil, and that his father considered him below the average in mentality. Many pupils with creative gifts had to wait for the world to discover their talents. In school they were regarded as either mediocre or failures. The modern secondary school makes every effort to discover every special ability that any child may possess, and tries to help him make the best of his individual endowments, both in his school life, and in preparation for the future.

Of the approximately three million pupils who make up the school population in secondary schools, public and private, all do not attend school because they have overwhelming desire for a liberal education. There are various motives for their attendance. Some of their reasons may be formulated as follows:

1. Because they enjoy the material and method of study.
2. Because school gives them a method of self-expression.
3. Because they believe that education is a good preparation for life.
4. Because they want to find out their capabilities.
5. Because they want to go to college eventually, and the high school is the necessary step for that.
6. Because they must do something until they are old enough to go to work.
7. Because they think that an education has vocational and professional value.
8. Because parents expect and insist that they go.
9. Because they enjoy being with children of the same social age.
10. Because it gives them the opportunity of engaging in organized athletics, games, and sports.
11. Because they have nothing better to do.

The attitude of pupils toward their school work is often a reflection of their purpose in going to school. After all, the main business of secondary education is to hand on a

body of organized knowledge. It is in the way pupils react toward the classroom activities that their purpose or lack of purpose in their attendance in school is revealed. The librarian is in a good position to observe this reaction to the school situation. Many pupils are interested enough in going to school to do their best to come up to school requirements. On the other hand, there are many who are indifferent to the attempts of their teachers to instruct them. From the behaviorist point of view, pupils with the following attitudes are not taking full advantage of what the school has to offer. Those who:

1. Have recourse to eleventh-hour study.
2. Do as little as possible, just so they are able to "get by."
3. Have the attitude of working for the teacher.
4. Show little interest in their school work. Are frankly bored by it.
5. Are more interested in getting credit for the course than in learning.
6. Mistake recognition for recall, and are not willing to go over the material often enough to make it a part of their mental stock.
7. Give only partial attention.
8. Allow their attention to be distracted.
9. Use the trial and error method instead of thinking the problem through.
10. Are unwilling to do their own thinking. Get help from their fellow students.
11. Put on the teacher the responsibility of getting their work.
12. Do not plan and organize their work.
13. Depend on chance and luck to get them through.
14. Lack a background of fundamental processes.
15. Lack a background of general knowledge.
16. Lack environmental background for subjects of the "appreciative" type.
17. Take advantage of any unusual situation that arises in the classroom.
18. Put more time on the subjects they enjoy, and slight those in which they need more time.

19. Do not make an effort to understand the assignment, and then give lack of understanding as an excuse for not coming up to requirements.

20. Are careless in written work and in oral speech.

21. Will not face a problem squarely. When in difficulty, absent themselves from school on a pretext. Always have an excuse to explain why work is not done.

22. Have no respect for the rights of others. Take too much of the teacher's time and attention.

23. Will not carry on classroom activity without the constant supervision of the teacher.

24. Are willing to begin a project, but never carry it to completion.

25. Are superficial and content with mediocre work.

26. Possess highly specialized ability, for example, in music or art, which makes school work and routine uninteresting.

27. Have an overdeveloped practical sense. Consider of no use all things that do not contribute directly to their vocation.

28. Are motor-type pupils, who find academic work without rhyme or reason; whereas pupils of the academic type look down on the manual arts subjects.

29. Do not have sufficient physical strength to follow the school routine.

30. Have too much expected of them outside the school.

31. Have too much social life that interferes with school work.

32. Are lazy because of too rapid physical growth that seems to "slow up" mental activity.

33. Suffer from nervous disturbance due to adolescent age.

34. Have undeveloped mental faculties with an I.Q. below that needed to do high-school work successfully.

35. Are volitional cases, in which the pupil shows a decided unwillingness to come up to requirements.

36. Show maladjustment between physical and mental life.

37. Live in an environment unsuited to adolescent youth.

These are some of the outstanding attitudes that the librarian observes in her work with pupils. The way a pupil attacks a problem can be counted upon to make clear

the purpose he has in going to school. The pupil who finds in school a congenial and purposeful atmosphere realizes there the joy of attainment. The pupil who is not getting what he should from his school life finds school a source of worry and thwarted activity. Fortunately, the number of misfits in schools is decreasing, largely because of the attention paid to the individual pupil. Various methods of direction and guidance are being perfected whereby the maladjusted pupil will be influenced to lead a more normal and happy life, and will be influenced to take advantage of what the school has to offer.

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CHAPTER VI

PUPIL GUIDANCE AND ADJUSTMENTS

Since 1900, the enrollment in the high schools of the United States has increased nine times as fast as has the population of the entire nation. This rapid growth in numbers has brought with it a concomitant change as regards both the make-up of the school population and the purpose of the curriculum. No longer is the secondary school the stronghold of the intellectual aristocrats. It belongs to everybody. All the children of all the people throng its halls, absorb the training it offers, and pour forth after four years to embark upon a college career or to take their places in the various fields of activity which their education has opened up to them. As the school has become increasingly democratized, it has been found that the old objectives will no longer do. In former years all secondary schools considered their chief purpose to be that of preparing students for college entrance. Few courses were offered that were not approved by college entrance boards; and only those students who intended to enter college were given much attention or encouragement. No longer can the high school fit every child into the time-honored Latin-mathematics-English-science schedule. Almost the first concern of the progressive school is to ascertain the child's main interests, and his course is planned accordingly.

It is evident, then, that the individual child, rather than the curriculum as a thing by itself, is the object of interest in the secondary school to-day. No two children, it is

recognized, can be forced through exactly the same course of training, with identical results. For not only do individual differences in mental capacity and maturity, subjective reactions and temperament present themselves; but we find also variations more deeply rooted, differences that are due to racial inheritance and family background and training, all of which influence both the learning capacity and the behavior of the individual child. The school studies carefully all these factors in regard to each child, and, with special attention to his likes and dislikes and his ambitions, attempts to adjust the activities of the school to his particular needs. The child, it is said, must lead a well-rounded life while he is in the secondary school. And there is ever increasing effort on the part of the school to provide activities for each child that will furnish him an outlet for his physical, social, mental, and ideal interests.

The physical education program in secondary schools concerns itself not only with matters of health and hygiene of the high-school pupils, but also with providing them with wholesome physical activity. To be physically active is an absolute necessity for healthy youth. Participation in organized plays and games not only serves as an outlet for activity, but it also teaches valuable lessons of coöperation and good sportsmanship which the pupil can get in no other way. The prevailing system of intramural and interscholastic sports and organized sports and games after school hours makes it possible for every pupil to get healthful exercise on the play level. Corrective gymnastics, rhythms, and dancing provide exercise for special pupils. The elements that the interscholastic athletics furnish of emulation, loyalty, and teamwork serve also to arouse school spirit. This is a very worth-while by-product because later this loyalty can be transferred from the school to the community at large and to the country, thus making for patriotism.

In many schools, pupils have a voice in the organization and administration of the school, though there are few schools in which they have much more than advisory function. Student councils composed of representatives from the various student activities and organizations in the school meet together to discuss problems of interest to the entire student body. Certain matters of school discipline are sometimes left entirely in their hands, for example, the corridor discipline, assembly attendance, tardiness, library behavior, classroom deportment in the absence of the teacher, and so forth. The great contribution of the student council to the conduct of the school is that of creating a favorable student opinion in regard to good law, order, and school citizenship.

School publications serve to make known the life that is being lived in the school. And while they are keeping the pupils in touch with the daily happenings, they are also exercising a valuable function by helping to mold school opinion. In addition, they provide excellent training for the students who are engaged in getting out the publications. The experience they gain may encourage students later to take up newspaper work as a vocation. But, in the immediate present, the chief value of the work lies in the fact that the student gains poise and assurance, as well as knowledge, from handling the various details necessary in publishing a newspaper—editing, selecting and rejecting material, soliciting subscriptions and advertisements, gathering news, and so forth.

Most secondary schools now have in their extracurricular programs numerous clubs, the purpose of which is to provide a means of expression for the special interests of every pupil. These clubs are deemed of sufficient importance that a special time is set aside during the school day for their meetings. In some schools, pupils are scheduled for clubs as they are for classes, and an attempt is made to

advise each student in the choice of a club that will best suit his needs and interests. A partial list of the possible clubs will show the wide range of interests represented: Advertising, Art, Art Collectors, Art Needlework, Big Sisters, Big Brothers, Bird, Botany, Camp Cookery, Civic, Costume, Current Events, Debating, Discussion, Dramatic, Engineering, Etiquette, French, German, Glee, Hiking, Journalism, Library, Literary, Mathematics, Motion Pictures, Music, Orchestra, Parliamentary Law, Poetry, Posters, Public Speaking, Science, Scribblers, Shakespeare, Social Dancing, Spanish, Stamp, Swimming, Tennis, Travel, Wild Flowers.

Nor is the purely social side of life neglected in the progressive high school. It is recognized that young people of high-school age are vitally interested in each other, and that standards of social intercourse are a valuable part of education. School dances under proper supervision can be made the means of teaching good manners and morals. School parties planned and carried out by the pupils under wise direction will not only contribute to the pleasure of the pupils, but also help to cultivate in the students ease of manner and poise in their social relationships.

Through its extracurricular program the school tries to adjust its organization to the social and intellectual needs of the normal children in the school. For the maladjusted child, however, additional provisions must be made. The pupil who is failing in his school work, and the pupil who is unable to adjust himself to his school environment will not be helped to any great extent by the extracurricular activities of the school. The problems of maladjustment are too deeply rooted, too complex, to admit of solution except at the hands of one who is an expert in diagnosing the causes of children's difficulties. And it is only upon the basis of such a diagnosis that remedial work, whether of an academic, social, or physiological nature, can be

undertaken. Personnel work is becoming increasingly important in the secondary school. When the procedure in this comparatively new field of endeavor is fully worked out, the school will be better able not only to adjust pupils who are not in harmony with their school environment, but also to give purpose and direction to the greater number of students who, though well enough adjusted to their work, are not living up to their highest possibilities. This personnel work with the students takes various forms. Vocational counseling is perhaps the best known and the best organized. There is now a valuable body of material of vocational information available on almost all industries and professions, and also a technique for making this material useful as guidance.¹ Directed study is another form of pupil adjustment. It aims to retain the benefits of mass teaching, and yet to make that teaching fit the needs of the individual. This directed study takes on various forms, in particular the divided class period and the special study period. Study is sometimes directed by the teacher making the assignment, and sometimes by a special study teacher, or study coach. In addition to these devices for pupil adjustment, the administrators and teachers in secondary education diagnose the cause of pupil failures and bend all their energies toward making necessary pupil adjustments. Attempts at pupil adjustment do not always meet with success because all the elements in the subjective life of the child cannot be accurately diagnosed, and all the elements that go into his objective life cannot be controlled. Even in a science experiment where all the conditions can be arranged and controlled, allowance is made for an infinitesimal percentage for error. It is, therefore, no wonder that in attempting to diagnose human life with its countless

¹See Appendix V for list of books on vocations and vocational guidance suggested by Robert C. Woellner, Principal of the University High School, The University of Chicago.

factors over which the personnel worker has no control, the corrective measures do not always alleviate the existing conditions.

The school library as an agency in pupil guidance and adjustment is becoming more and more recognized in progressive secondary schools. The organized personnel workers of these schools avail themselves of the light that the library can throw on the interests of the pupils through their choice of reading. The vocational adviser depends on the library for the proper books on the subject, and welcomes the help that the librarian can give in directing the children's reading. Where the organized extracurricular activities are concerned, the library coöperates with the faculty advisers of the clubs, and with the pupils in program making and in providing material for club meetings. For the literary clubs, the school library is the major source of inspiration and direction.

Various school librarians have worked out a technique for making the library serve the school as an extracurricular and social clearing house as well as for making it function as a laboratory for the academic activities of the school. This technique differs in the different schools, since it must be in keeping with the conditions in the particular school. Many contacts made by the library, which guide the pupil to a fuller and richer life both in and out of school, are not an organized and recognized part of the school remedial work. Because of the fact that much of the pupil direction and guidance that the school library undertakes is still in the early experimental stage, there is little material available that can suggest the scope and possibilities in library guidance. But from an experiential survey of the methods used in various school libraries, it is possible to formulate certain types of school-library guidance.

The school-library situation is favorable to an informal

type of guidance. There is no school credit to be gained in the library, no apparent direction of activity. The pupil can be at ease, be just himself. All this makes it possible for the librarian to see the pupil as an individual. The library room with its treasures of creative thought of both the past and the present, its artistic physical appearance, the atmosphere of order without strain, is a challenge to the capacities and interests of the pupil. In the library, there is something for every pupil, no matter what his interests, moods or motives. Here all pupil activity can be carried on in a friendly, informal spirit. Here, the pupil is in a measure off his guard as far as formal supervision is concerned, and is therefore most truly himself. The care free yet orderly demeanor that the pupil has in the school library is the result of the prevailing atmosphere of quiet and order as contrasted with the repression inherent in the classroom situation. For this reason, the librarian can get a clear idea of the attitudes, interests, and standards of each pupil, which it is impossible to get in any other way. Therefore the librarian who has training in the psychology of adolescence can discover and diagnose the pupil who is maladjusted in the school, and can supplement the data which has been gathered from other sources. The librarian's report on a pupil should show his study attitudes, his interests as evinced by his reading, the way he reacts to a hard situation in his lesson-getting, his purpose in the school situation as he gives evidence of this from his attitude toward school and school work, his physical and mental handicaps, and the school conditions that make for maladjustment in his particular case. This library report in addition to the intelligence and performance tests, the classroom reports from his teachers, and a report of the interviews the personnel or guidance officer has had with the pupil, will give an idea of the pupil as a personality, and will make it possible to give each child remedial

work that will fit his individual case. Besides giving such tangible help as submitting diagnostic reports about the pupils, the librarian also performs services in the school that are not so easily formulated. Some of the ways she can direct and guide pupils are in the realm of the subjective life of the child. And that this guidance is important no one will gainsay.

With all the world before them, pupils of high-school age have aspirations to amount to something. They want to make a name for themselves, to do something that will make them known to posterity. These aspirations are mostly vague, unformed. They are in the realm of the sensations and feelings rather than in rational thought. Yet young people are puzzled, uncertain, and unsatisfied by their inability to be the creatures of their own imagining. The distance between what they are and what they want to become is so great that they doubt their own powers to rise. Even those who attempt to make their daydreams and aspirations real, soon tire because the distance they must travel is so great and the end of the road is not well marked. Aspirations are a part of the inner life of youth that they guard carefully. They seem ashamed to admit that they aspire to heights, for fear that they may never reach them, and thus bring down on themselves ridicule, which they fear. When youth speaks of aspirations, it is with an apologetic attitude, as though the craving to be somebody in the world were not an altogether normal desire.

There is nothing that helps children to believe in, and cling to, their aspirations more firmly than does the reading of good biography. And, fortunately, at no time, apparently, have people been so interested in unearthing biographical material and making it available to the reading public as now. Statesmen, rulers, musicians, literary men, saints, and clowns—all classes and groups of men and

women once famous pass in review before the eyes of the reader. The story of how these people labored and suffered and finally achieved their goals gives the pupil added courage to go on. The purposefulness and high aims of the great men and women whose lives they read strengthen the aspirations of the youth of to-day. Such books, wisely chosen, should form a large part of the inspirational literature to which the librarian will direct the pupil.

High-school pupils need background almost more than any one other thing. Education, it has been said, is the process of building up, for present and future use, knowledge, attitudes, standards of art and of the arts of life. This knowledge becomes the apperceptive mass and intellectual background that the child has in store, and by means of which he interprets new knowledge and situations. But pupils of high-school age have no adequate body of material with which to associate new facts and ideas. Their stock of general information is too meager to serve as an apperceptive mass; and their experience has been too restricted to permit them to build up many associations.

The school library and the classroom are both engaged in the task of increasing the apperceptive mass of each child. The first-named agency, in particular, has an unusual opportunity to furnish pupils, through books, with a body of vicarious experiences and general information, on both the work and play levels. A well-selected collection of books will be comprehensive and diversified enough to serve as a source of background material and general information to pupils of entirely different capacities, background, and interests. By means of his general reading in the school library, the student will be enabled to gain new information, new concepts, and to interpret and explain concepts previously formed.

An outstanding characteristic of pupils of high-school

age is their proneness to generalize without sufficient evidence. They make general statements on the basis of one experience or observation, and draw hasty conclusions from the unsubstantiated remarks of others. With them, exaggerations and undervaluation take the place of accuracy of thought and statement. Vague utterances are the result of this loose thinking. Certain courses in the high-school curriculum, as, for example, mathematics, are designed to increase accuracy of thought and statement. But this accuracy does not always carry over into the work of all the other departments, nor does it function in the general discourse of the pupil. He may be painstakingly correct in his statement of a mathematical problem, and yet be most diffuse in his manner of thinking through and discussing a topic in history or English. He may be exact in drawing and yet be careless in the science laboratory.

The reference books in the school library can be of great aid to the pupil in overcoming this tendency toward vagueness. It is the special province of the librarian to substitute facts for the guesses of the pupils, to check up their inaccuracies of thought and statement, to overcome the "wobbly" thinking on any subject, which results from insufficient data, by furnishing more material. This side of reference work is, of course, indispensable for the carrying out of successful classroom instruction. But it is equally valuable as an aid to the work of the various extracurricular organizations, and in the student's own thinking. In all departments of knowledge there is a continuous increase of information and a consequent change, either in the facts themselves or in their application. It is not enough that the pupil should know a fact; he must have the opportunity to follow the development of the idea, or fact, whichever it is, through all the variations wrought in it by the changing ideas of the years. It is only by seeing things thus in retrospect that the student will gain some tangible

basis for generalization. And this opportunity only the library can give to him.

Pupils of high-school age rarely know their own capacities and permanent interests. Nor do they, except in still rarer instances, have very definite ideas of their own creative gifts, talents, and skills. One of the great worries of many high-school pupils is that they realize they must go out in the world relatively soon, and that they do not know what they wish to do. The great majority of young people know only a very few of the numerous opportunities and activities that would be open to them.

The pupil should be given an opportunity to explore various possibilities for future interests and occupations. More than anything else he needs to have wide fields of choice opened up to him, to be allowed to roam here and there among suggestions for possible careers, to play now with this fancy, and now with the other. It is only through such wide experimentation with various interests, both vocational and intellectual, that the child will be able to increase his range of choice and establish a satisfactory basis for his final decision in regard to the relatively satisfying qualities of different interests. The school library is an exploration room. Here are to be found suggestions for the passing fancy or for the permanent interest. Through books and magazines, pictures and posters, the pupil becomes acquainted with various possibilities. And, too, in the library he can experiment with various interests in an informal atmosphere, which is the one best suited to self-discovery.

All great literature has the quality of universality. And because of this the creative artist has been the spokesman for us who are inarticulate. Subjective states, vague sensations, æsthetic feelings are caused by nature or by great art. Youth has these feelings but does not know what to make of them. Pupils cannot explain these subjective

states even to themselves. It is the poet who expresses what they feel, and makes them conscious of their own reactions. In the interpretation given by the poet, children can recognize their own feelings, and in addition, the poet gives that pleasurable state of mind that we call appreciation. Poetry thus has the power to make the pupil become articulate to himself if not to others. Beneath the vagueness of his emotions and sensations, he discovers something which, as the interpretation of the artist reveals, is full of richness and wonder. This gives him something to live for other than the practical, everyday existence.

It is in the school library that pupils may come in contact with imaginative literature. The service that this type of literature renders is to interpret the subjective states and feelings of the child. From vague, unformed, intangible impressions, from the sensations brought by the sense organs, it is possible to gather æsthetic pleasure because some creative artist was sensitive enough to interpret things subjectively. And by reading the expression of the artist's own thoughts and feelings, the pupil can see the significance of his own vague feelings and attitudes, and derive pleasure from the new meaning he is able to give to them.

Pupils of high-school age have not had an opportunity to come into contact with people sufficiently to know human nature. And since they are to "carry on" in the world, a knowledge of the motives that enter into human action is of the highest importance. To get this knowledge from actual experience without some form of preparation is a costly matter. In the school curriculum there is provision made for pupils to gain some acquaintance with human nature and character through vicarious experiences in books.

From books pupils can get an interpretation of human nature. Books, perhaps, more than real life reveal to us

the hidden motives for many actions hitherto unexplained. And books show also that there is an interdependence in human life; that the relations of humans living together are complex. These are all things that youth must know. So well do really good authors analyze human character and show the motivation for each word and deed, that we know some characters in fiction better than we do those of our intimate friends and family. Becky Sharp, for example, is perhaps more real to us than any person we know. The inconsistencies in her nature, her reaction upon others, her motives, the flaws in her character, the dynamic qualities of her mind make her a convincing personality. Knowing Becky Sharp, we may perhaps know the motives and methods of all social climbers, past, present, and to come. For human nature changes only in externals and in the intensity of action. By wide reading, pupils can know a host of different kinds of people, and can realize and understand that each and every one must battle with self and with the conditions of his environment if he is to build up a worthy life. To know intimately all "kinds and conditions" of men, women, and children will give the pupil of high-school age a true understanding of human nature, with its weaknesses, its strength, its motives, its actions, and interactions. This knowledge will later be found invaluable, as the pupil, then mature, deals with real situations and real people, who, he will find, are much like the characters in the books he read in school.

In a democracy all should have equal opportunities. It is not possible to make an equality of capacity, but it is possible for all individuals to share educational advantages up to their capacity. The school library is a real experiment in democracy. Here come children of different heredity and environment, different standards of living, different motives. The library and its contents must be used in a socialized way. The use by the individual must not conflict

with the rights of all. No one student may usurp all the material, or all the service, that the library has to offer. And even in the conduct in the library room itself, the student gains experience in democratic living, for while there he must respect the necessity for quiet that the presence of other students, variously occupied, entails. Using material that belongs to the entire school, and behaving in an acceptable manner, in the interests of all the pupils, and doing all of this without hope of any tangible reward, is the best possible preparation for future citizens of a democracy.

Most secondary schools now provide facilities for physical education. Such training is of great importance; but it should not be forgotten that a healthy mind is as necessary as a healthy body, if the child is to develop into a well-rounded individual. In adolescence the pupil must make an adjustment between his own new physical self and his new sensations and modes of thought. The readjustment is so great that this period of development is often rightly called the "storm and stress" period. It is at this time that the child is most often a prey to a mass of brooding thoughts and fears, and destructive and disturbing imaginings. The abnormal interests and the complexes of inferiority and persecution to which such thoughts give rise weaken the will power of the individual, and make adjustment with the environment a difficult matter.

In the absence of organized training in mental hygiene, the school library must substitute other interests, for the undigested and unregulated thoughts of the adolescent child. Habits of thought, like other habits, can be controlled; but, as is also the case with other habits, healthy habits of thought should be substituted. Here, again, books can be relied upon to effect mental readjustments impossible of attainment in any other way. In the school library, there are books for every mood and for every pur-

pose. Here may be found, in abundance, the material that can substitute wholesome and useful thoughts for the mass of harmful ideas that hinder the child's own peace of mind, and limit him in his social obligations to others. Books can give material that will serve as an outlet for dark thoughts and brooding fears, and can keep harmful thoughts from becoming fixed and ingrowing. Great books clarify thought, give a sense of proportion and purpose, and make for normal thought and action.

It is perhaps in the opportunity that the school library gives to pupils to follow up their interests and to satisfy curiosity that it contributes most to the school. Children of high-school age are alive with curiosity and passing fancies. But the interests that are not followed up sufficiently to make a conscious and orderly impression on their minds are of very little value. Indeed, they may prove harmful because they are only another addition to the stray thoughts that clutter up the mind of the pupil. Youth has a tendency to take up an interest with glowing enthusiasm, to drop it almost immediately before the possibilities in it are apparent, and then to pursue another. This constant changing interest uses up much of the child's nerve energy and nerve force. Some of this expenditure of energy is evidence of the natural mental activity and exuberance of youth; but, carried to an extreme, it becomes a harmful mental habit.

In the school library, pupils can find a new angle to their individual interests that will strengthen the original desire to know more about them. The additional light that books can throw on an interest or an intellectual curiosity supplies an opportunity for orderly, purposeful following of that interest. The successful intellectual effort expended by the pupil in pursuing a more complete knowledge of his intellectual hobbies gives him a feeling of accomplishment that makes for happiness and satisfaction. This in turn

will make him take up and follow other interests because they are a mode of self-expression.

Much of the lesson-getting in the modern school is done in the classroom, in the study hall, or in the school library. In the problem or project method with its many modifications, most of the supplementary work requires library material. It is the work of the librarian not only to furnish the pupil with the material he needs in his work, but also to see that the work is done in a workmanlike manner. The librarian must in many cases interpret the assignment of the teacher for the pupil. In the case of voluntary projects, she must make suggestions of possible problems to be undertaken by the pupil, must give the pupil an idea of the possibilities in the treatment of the subject, what material is available, and the probable relationships of his problem to the subject as a whole. Suggesting pictures, posters, maps, and other modes of making the project vital and real, is an important part of the librarian's work. While the pupil is working on the project, the librarian must take an interest in the work, must guide his efforts, give him courage to go on when his interest begins to lag, and must see to it that the work is honestly and efficiently done. The result must be the best effort that the particular pupil is able to make. Upon the librarian devolves the task of keeping each child's work up to his best level.

Many of the pupils who attend school have a genuine interest in their school work and really enjoy mental activity. These, as a rule, have efficient habits of study. But there is in every school a large number who wish to come up to school requirements but cannot do so because they do not know how to study. And there is in every school a small minority of pupils who do not have the mental capacity and will power to do successful school work. In the work that the pupils do in the library upon their lesson assignments and in other activities that involve the gather-

ing of facts, the librarian has an opportunity of observing the pupils' attitude in lesson-getting. Study guidance is one of the types of work carried on in the school library.

Study guidance in the library, to be successful, must enlist the coöperation of the pupil for his own betterment. That is the only way permanent changes in attitudes and habits can be established. If the pupil can be persuaded to go through the motions of efficient study, he will gradually be led to the formation of efficient habits of study. Helping pupils to plan and organize their work will oftentimes correct disorganized and superficial work and will in the end create accurate habits of thought. To inspire pupils with pride in a piece of school work well done, not only makes it possible for them to react favorably in their classrooms, but also gives them standards of attainment and a self-confidence that will help them in future undertakings. In the library, study guidance can be carried on without the element of strain and without the compulsion that is present in the classroom and the study hall. And, too, the library has the additional advantage of having close at hand and available for immediate use the books and other material that the pupil needs for study. Under these conditions, the library is in a position to challenge the best efforts of the pupils.

Although in many schools there is provision made for vocational counseling and guidance, there are many schools in which no such provision is made, the work being carried on in an informal way in the school library. In schools where there is organized vocational guidance, the library coöperates with the adviser.

The school librarian can carry on the work of guidance by furnishing information about the possibilities in the various fields of work. And the librarian can gauge the capacities, skills, and talents of the pupils. Many pupils have no idea whatever what they would prefer to do as a

life work. Others have vocational preferences that are not in keeping with their abilities. Still others think they wish to follow a work or profession because it offers thrills and exciting experiences. The librarian can be of service to all these groups of students by suggesting to them the vocations for which their individual temperaments and abilities seem to fit them best.

A good collection of books on different vocations and professions will give pupils the definite information they need to have, and will correct certain erroneous ideas they may entertain in regard to some occupations. Such reading often suggests to them, for the first time, the vocations for which they are best fitted by natural ability and inclination. If such reading be followed by observation of the industry or the profession in question, and by talks with those actively engaged in the work, the pupil will gain familiarity that will probably lead to an abiding interest in that vocation.

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CHAPTER VII

READING AS A LEISURE OCCUPATION

The amount of leisure time each individual possesses is now much greater than it was one hundred years ago. The increased use of machinery in industry, to replace the slower hand labor; the greater number of mechanical appliances, which lessen the necessity for the expenditure of human energy; the stricter labor laws, which limit the number of hours one can be forced to spend in doing a day's work—all these and many more factors have conspired to give people more spare time.

How this extra time is to be spent is a question that needs serious consideration. Knowing how to employ one's leisure moments is indeed a fine art which few possess. Pope said somewhere that whatever makes us happy makes us wise, thus indicating that even the poets concede the necessity for well-planned, well-spent leisure.

If, then, our first premise be that we must have occupation for our free hours, our second premise should be that such occupation have variety. A change of activity is essential if pleasure is to be derived from the pursuit; for as even the most fascinating game becomes tiresome if played too often, or for too long a period, so any too oft-repeated activity, whether physical or mental, as it grows more familiar becomes gradually monotonous, until finally it takes on one of the elements found in work, that is, the element of strain. Variety, then, is the second essential for leisure occupations.

Although it would seem that how the individual spends

his free time should be a matter for him to decide, it should, at the same time, be remembered that his decision affects the whole social group of which he is a part. His tastes and demands in the matter of entertainment help to mold those of his fellows, just as theirs react on him. And consequently, the theater, music, art, literature, motion pictures, and so forth, with which the individual amuses himself in his leisure time are the reflection of his own desires. For the commercial world gauges the tastes of its public and gives it just what it wants and is willing to pay for. It is, of course, a proposition that works both ways; for public taste is, in turn, influenced and shaped by what it sees constantly before its eyes. Thus it can be seen how very important it is for each person to choose worth-while entertainment for his spare moments.

Children of adolescent age, if normally healthy, have always had infinitely more physical and mental energy than was required for the performance of their school and home duties, and, consequently, had time beyond what they needed for the work activities in their environment. With them, then, the problem of suitable occupation during their leisure hours has always been an active one. And now, the same factors that have conspired to give their elders more leisure, have set the child free from many tasks that he formerly took as a matter of course. Modern methods of education have made possible many short cuts to knowledge. By directed study and by the recognition of individual differences and capacities, and the adaptation of the curriculum to these differences, the school has lessened the task of learning for the child, even though his course of study contains many items that had not even been heard of fifty or seventy-five years ago. In the home, too, the changes incident upon the manufacture of time-saving housekeeping devices, and the widespread move into smaller homes because of the crowding of population, have

released the child from many of the tasks that he had to perform before, and have left him with much additional spare time on his hands.

The task of training pupils to use their free time profitably is one which devolves, rightfully, upon the home, the school, and the library. Each of these agencies hopes not only to teach the child how to live in the present, but to give him standards and habits that will carry over into adult life. What the child chooses, of his own volition, for his leisure occupation depends in large measure upon his physical and mental make-up, his environment and training, and the opportunities for recreation in the community. No outside pressure can be brought to bear to change his taste at one fell swoop. The cultivation of taste is a matter of gradual mental growth, acquisition of new interests, and comparison of standards, old and new. It is only by artful suggestion, by placing in his way suggestions of worth-while occupations to replace any that are less laudable, that any educational agency can hope to influence the child's choice of leisure hobbies. Guidance and direction are the prime requisites.

It is remarkable how many things there are for the adolescent child to do during his leisure time. Of course, no one child could possibly find time to do all of them, nor would there be the desire to do so. And, besides, not all activities have equal pleasure-giving qualities for all children. Active strenuous physical exercise appeals to some children, passive participation to others. This is true of the mental as well as of the physical expenditure of activity. There is an equally wide range in the individual differences of children in their attitudes toward leisure time as toward work. The wider the limits of their choice of leisure occupation, the more various does the individual choice become. Then, too, there is a marked difference in the capacity of different children for enjoyment, and a wide

range in personal taste for which the leisure time gives an outlet.

In classifying the actual activities of adolescent children during their leisure time, it is well to bear in mind that no one child can do all of them, that some children do more than others, that the combination of activities varies with each individual child, and that what is chosen depends on many varying conditions, such as family interests, training, interests of his companions, the community, the season of the year, and so forth. The following list of leisure occupations of adolescent children, classified according to the interests that give rise to them, affords a cross section of the things which the generalized group choose to do:

ACQUISITIVE INSTINCT

Active

Collecting postcards

Collecting stamps

Collecting street-car transfers

Collecting biological specimens

Collecting geological specimens

Collecting paper handkerchiefs

Collecting curios

Reading books about collections in order to be able to identify and classify objects

Passive

Looking at collections others have made

Reading books about collections for pleasure

Looking at pictures of specimens

CREATIVE IMPULSE—ART LEVEL

Active

Taking part in theatricals

Drawing and painting

Taking music lessons—voice and instrumental music

Writing poetry, plays, intimate essays

Interpretative dancing

Passive

Going to the opera
 Going to the theater
 Going to the motion-picture show
 Going to see interpretative dancing
 Going to see art gallery
 Going to see art exhibits
 Playing the victrola
 Playing the piano player
 Listening to the radio
 Reading about the opera, theater, music and musicians, motion pictures
 Reading plays

CREATIVE IMPULSE—MANIPULATION LEVEL

Active

Making radio
 Making electric devices
 Carpentry—bird houses
 Carpentry—repairing
 Carpentry—making furniture
 Taking and developing pictures
 Stringing beads
 Making paper flowers
 Making useful objects of paper, cotton, and silk
 Decorating objects with water colors
 Arranging things
 Taking things apart to see how they work
 Reading books and magazines which tell how things are made,
 and which give directions for making things

Passive

Going to automobile show
 Going to radio show
 Going to county and state fair
 Going to visit industries
 Going to lectures on mechanical or scientific subjects
 Reading about radio and electricity for pleasure
 Reading about inventions and inventors
 Reading magazines dealing with practical and industrial arts

CURIOSITY—INTELLECTUAL

Active

- Reading books about people and things
- Reading magazines and newspapers about what is going on in the world about us
- Looking at maps
- Looking at pictures for the purpose of identifying objects
- Consulting reference books in order to check up on facts

IDEALISTIC AND ALTRUISTIC INTEREST

Active

- Going to Sunday school
- Going to church
- Going to social settlements
- Taking part in entertainments for church
- Taking part in drives for worthy purposes—church fund
- Taking part in drives for worthy purposes—charity
- Taking part in drives for worthy purposes—missionary
- Taking part in drives for worthy purposes—disabled soldiers
- Helping parents—running errands
- Helping parents—caring for younger children
- Helping parents—cleaning the automobile
- Helping school—extracurricular activities
- Helping city—Clean-up Week
- Helping city—taking part in parades

Passive

- Reading religious books and newspapers
- Reading about settlements
- Finding books giving suggestions of how to entertain
- Reading books on good citizenship
- Reading about the benighted peoples and missionary activities

INTEREST IN ANIMALS

Active

- Care of cat, dog, horse
- Play with cat, dog
- Riding horseback
- Reading books about animals in order to learn how to take care of them

Passive

Reading stories and poems about animals for pleasure

INTEREST IN CHANCE AND FORTUNE

Active

Playing cards, dominoes, chess

Working cross-word puzzles

Playing guessing games

Using Hoyle in order to find how a game should be played

Using the dictionary to help work cross-word puzzles

Passive

Reading books which have plots containing an element of chance, for example, mystery and detective stories

INTEREST IN NATURE

Active

Making gardens

Taking care of flowers

Going camping

Going on field trips

Taking tramps into the country

Going to the park

Reading about nature in order to be able to observe nature intelligently

Passive

Reading books of nature for pleasure

MOVEMENT, CHANGE OF SCENE, WANDERLUST

Active

Riding in automobile

Riding in wagon

Horseback riding

Bicycle riding

Riding in public carriers—train, street car, steamship

Riding in motor boat or canoe

Reading travel literature and guidebooks as a background for a trip

Studying maps in order to plan an itinerary

Passive

- Going to hear travel lectures
- Going to see races—automobile, horse, bicycle
- Reading "tarry-at-home" travel books for pleasure

PERSONAL ADORNMENT

Active

- Going shopping
- Planning a wardrobe
- Noticing what others wear
- Window shopping
- Trying things on in order to get the effect
- Going to the dressmaker
- Selecting material
- Selecting style
- Working out a budget
- Consulting with friends about a purchase
- Looking in the looking glass to see if garments are on right
- Looking in the looking glass to see if hair and other items of personal appearance are right
- Studying fashion magazines

Passive

- Reading about what other people are wearing
- Reading about what motion-picture stars and other celebrities are wearing
- Reading forecasts of fashion
- Reading books about suitable dress
- Reading books about budget-making

PHYSICAL ACTIVITY

Active

- Organized athletics
- Participation in sports—tennis, golf, football, baseball, soccer, basket ball, hockey, handball
- Skating—ice, roller
- Playing on playground, street, yard
- Running, walking, jumping, throwing things
- Boating, swimming, diving
- Hunting

Punching bag

Reading books that teach how to play games

Passive

Going to see organized athletics

Going to see games and sports

Going to see water sports

Reading books about physical strength and prowess

Reading about great athletes

Reading newspapers for results of games

Looking at diagrams of games

PLAY OF THE IMAGINATION

Active

Reading books of imaginative literature in order to reconstruct them in imagination

Daydreaming

Making plans for the future

Playing make-believe

THE FIGHTING INSTINCT

Active

Arguing

Discussing

Debating

Teasing

Scuffling

Boxing

Fighting

Passive

Going to hear debates

Watching a fight

Reading debating books

Reading about the art of self-defense

Reading about conflicts in war and in peace

RESTING

Active manifestations

Reclining

Apparently doing nothing

Staring into space
Talking without having anything to say
Whistling
Looking at pictures without interest
Skimming through book
Movements of hands, feet, and body which have no apparent object

SOCIAL INTERESTS

Active

Writing letters
Telephoning
Paying and receiving visits
Entertaining and being entertained
Going to parties
Going to dances
Going to clubs—Boy Scout
Going to clubs—Girl Scout
Talking—exchange of ideas
Talking—small talk
Reading books of etiquette
Reading books giving ideas on how to entertain
Reading books on letter writing

Passive

Reading novels of social life of the past and of the present.¹

All the leisure occupations possible for the whole group of adolescent children are not engaged in by any one child. Each child chooses from the numerous activities within his reach the things that give him the maximum of pleasure. This choice, then, freely made, furnishes the index to the real taste of the child. The following study of the leisure occupation of four high-school children gives a more definite idea than does the generalized list noted above of the possible breadth of adolescent interests:

¹Study made of the leisure occupations of one hundred pupils in the University of Chicago High School, 1927.

PUPIL A. A boy fifteen years of age uses his leisure as follows: plays football, basket ball, and baseball; watches these games played by college teams; goes to motion pictures (once a month or so); collects stamps; plays piano; attends concerts; listens to radio; plays golf and tennis; camps in summer; goes fishing; swims every Saturday; reads; goes to theaters (three or four times a year); makes collections of biological specimens; hunts; drives; goes boating; goes to chess club; skates; plays pool; makes collection of coins; writes letters.

PUPIL B. A boy fourteen years of age does the following things in his leisure time: attends motion pictures (sometimes); sees football games (sometimes); goes automobile riding; participates in football drill; plays soccer; takes dog out; listens to radio; reads the paper; reads *Boys' Life* magazine; goes to the stores.

PUPIL C. A girl fifteen years of age engages in the following leisure occupations: reading (aloud and silently); sewing; writing; arranging things (putting in order); riding (automobile); riding (horseback); walking; playing tennis; playing baseball, volley ball; swimming; boating; hiking; camping; going to plays; going to musical comedies; going to opera and concerts; going to the motion pictures; skating; going to parties; discussing; acting in plays; going to lectures; going to church and Sunday school; listening to the radio; dancing; going to the Art Institute and to the Field Museum; studying; visiting.

PUPIL D. A girl sixteen years of age has this list of things she does in her leisure time: reads books and magazines; goes to games; goes to motion pictures and to the theater; goes in for school activities; goes to concerts and to the opera; goes shopping; goes to lectures; goes riding in an automobile; plays tennis, golf, and skates; goes to parties and dances.

Of all the activities in which children engage during their leisure time, reading is one that they can enjoy throughout the entire year and that serves as an active or passive occupation in conjunction with other interests. Then, too, reading as a leisure occupation for children gathers importance from the fact that it is an interest

that, if once well established, will carry over into adult life. The large stock of surplus physical energy that children possess diminishes as the individual approaches maturity. Few adults choose, from preference, to devote all their spare time to athletics and sports. It is rather to the pleasures and activities of the mind that the intelligent adult instinctively turns. Hence the cultivation of a desire for good reading is a necessity, not only for the sake of the immediate cultivation of the child's mind, but in order to establish a habit that will afford him increasing pleasure as the years creep over him.

How much of the leisure time of the adolescent child is spent in reading, it is well-nigh impossible to state. Thus far there have been comparatively few investigations of this situation; hence very little information is available. "Investigations made in Rochester, New York, show that reading is, in point of time spent, the chief recreation as well as business of school children."² A study of the voluntary reading of 1,669 high-school pupils in St. Joseph, Missouri, in 1926, gives evidence that, in St. Joseph, high-school pupils read more magazines than books, and that their reading is chosen largely from the inferior books and magazines. Pupils who expect to go to college read no more widely than do those who have no such intention. Although pupils are brought in touch with good literature in their English classes, they prefer to read mediocre books during their leisure hours, if they read at all. Reading in St. Joseph, it seems, cannot compete successfully with the superior attractions of the motion picture, the radio, the automobile and other forms of social diversion, as a leisure occupation. Of the five schools studied, only one had a library and a trained librarian, and the pupils in this school did

² C. H. Johnston and J. H. Newlon and F. G. Pickell, *Junior-Senior High School Administration* (New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1922), p. 286.

not read noticeably more or better books than the pupils in the schools that lacked this advantage.³

As said before, lack of sufficient data precludes the possibility of making any definite statements in regard to the place of reading as one of the major leisure occupations of adolescent children. Local conditions, such as a well-organized progressive school library, a well-stocked public library, and the coöperation of the schools and the libraries, all help to create in the child a desire to read more and better books. Failure of a community to provide an adequate supply of books, and failure of the school authorities to take advantage of library service to the fullest extent, will affect the reading habits of the school community disastrously.

Reasons for reading may be summed up as follows: "Some urge toward wanting to know, and some urge toward wanting to play; both being forms of the desire to find ourselves; and some urge toward wanting to forget, the same being an impulse to escape from the consciousness of a side of ourselves that is weary, or baffled, or discouraged."⁴ Reading is one of the means of self-expression and of self-forgetfulness. It answers the need for satisfying intellectual curiosity, gives vicarious experiences, and helps to express what we cannot express ourselves. Reading can satisfy every mood, can be gay or grave, can overcome space, distance, and time. What, besides, has reading to offer to children? Mary Wright Plummer gives seven joys of reading out of the many that might be named: the joy of familiarity; the joy of surprise; the joy of sympathy; the joy of appreciation; the joy of ex-

³ A study made of the reading of high-school pupils in St. Joseph, Missouri, by Bertha M. Rightmire and Elizabeth Wright for Course 337a, School of Education, The University of Chicago.

⁴ J. B. Kerfoot, *How to Read* (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1916), p. 109.

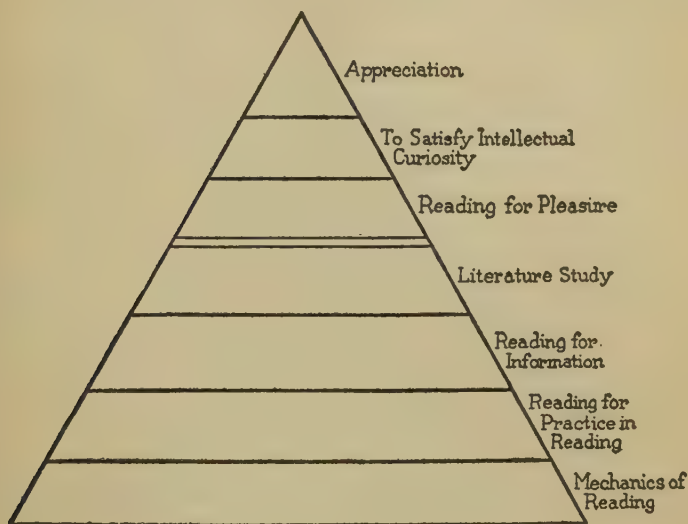
pansion; the joy of shock, and the joy of revelation.⁵ So much has reading to offer!

Children of adolescent age rarely question why they like a book. They know whether or not it gives them pleasure, but they do not trouble to formulate the reasons for their choice. Seemingly the task of subjecting their emotional enjoyment to a critical analysis detracts from the pleasure they experience in reading. To expect children to analyze their reasons for liking a book is, in a way, to create an anticlimax. The child has not yet developed a large enough reading background to enable him to compare one book with another, to weigh their respective merits and faults, and to form his judgment accordingly. His reading must necessarily be of the sort to form this very reading background. It must be catholic rather than critical or selective in variety. There are so many other things clamoring for the attention of the child in his leisure moments that he will naturally choose that activity that gives him the most pleasure. He should be encouraged to read purely for the sake of reading and for what incidental profit he will gain from the information absorbed. Each and every child gets out of a book just what he can translate into his own emotions, feelings, and experiences. But each additional book read will enlarge the field of his experiences and increase his ability to judge his further reading more critically.

Learning to read is so important that it is one of the three *R*'s in education. The process is not a sudden and instantaneous skill, like the ability gained in working a problem in arithmetic after the teacher has explained it. The acquisition of reading skill is a slow, cumulative process, so gradual in its growth that it would be hard to say just when the various indefinite levels in the power to

⁵ M. W. Plummer, *Seven Joys of Reading* (New York, H. W. Wilson Co., 1916).

read are reached. The learning to read and the practice on material to gain skill in reading are as a general rule carried on at the work level. Reading is not a pleasure until the difficulties that recognition of symbols, words, and phrases involve are surmounted. As the span of reading grows larger, the mind can reconstruct the thought, imag-



ery, or subtle phrases in the printed page. It is not until then that reading is done on the play level, and becomes a leisure occupation.

In the pyramid of reading diagrammed above, mechanics of reading, reading for practice in reading, reading for information, and literature study are on the work level. That does not presuppose that there is not pleasure incidental to acquiring skill, and a certain amount of interest in the material used in acquiring skill. It has always been one of the objectives in the teaching of reading and literature that the element of interest and pleasure be present. But

interest and pleasure elements were made secondary to the object and result. The stress has been laid on giving pupils the ability to read, and to acquaint them with good literature. If the object could be gained with pleasure for the pupils, well and good; if not, they must be given the abilities without the pleasure.

On the play level come the three top activities in the pyramid of reading. Reading for pleasure, reading to satisfy curiosity, and reading for appreciation are the fruits of the reading activities on the work level. In a sense they are the evidence of the pupils' adaptation to the reading foundation that was laid by the four lower activities in the pyramid of reading discussed above. When pupils read for pleasure during their leisure time, it is safe to assume that the foundation has been well laid. That they prefer reading to the many other activities from which they have to choose would indicate that the adaptation is not a temporary one, but that there is a reading habit either in the process of being established or already established.

Sanderson of Oundle believed that education is an unfolding process. If that is true, the child must be given the opportunity of coming into contact, in an informal way, with the intellectual stimuli that will contribute to that unfolding. And nowhere will he find so much of this apparently casual stimulation as in the high-school library. In the words of Carlyle: "All that a university or final highest school can do for us, is still but what the first school began doing,—teach us to read. We learn to read, in various languages, in various sciences; we learn the alphabet and letters of all manner of books. But the place where we get knowledge, even theoretic knowledge, is from the books themselves."

There is a psychological basis for reading on the play level. It is as natural for children to be curious as it is

for them to wish to expend physical energy. It is as natural for them to wish to live through the vicarious experiences of characters in fiction as it is for them to daydream; it is as natural to wish to read about hair-breadth adventures as it is for them to wish to seek adventure. Once children have learned the mechanics of reading, they will usually choose to read for pleasure if conditions are at all favorable for them to indulge in their choice. In their early youth, they ask questions of their elders. As soon as they learn to read, their curiosity concerning the world about them prompts them to go to books, magazines, and newspapers for the answer to the how, when, and why of their environment and of the world.

All children do not have intellectual curiosity to the same extent, nor do all have the ability to appreciate literature to the same degree; but all can be influenced to read for pleasure if the right books are available and if they are introduced to the books in the right way. The high school would seem to be the logical place in which to concentrate the energies on the task of promoting the reading habit when it is already present in the pupil, and of establishing a reading habit in those who have not already acquired it. The present-day democratic high school has the opportunity to serve practically all the young people in this country between the ages of twelve and nineteen. In giving them the reading habit as a leisure occupation it is fitting them for wholesome leisure in their adult life.

The school, the school library, the public library, and the home are all interested in how children spend their leisure time. All agree in a measure that reading is a desirable leisure occupation for children, but there is a slight variance in their theories of what, and how much, should be read. Four definite theories of reading for leisure are in vogue.

1. Books read by adolescent children should be measured by quality rather than quantity. The reading of a great number is highly undesirable. Only those books should be read that have proved themselves to be classics, to have universality of appeal. This reading has for its object appreciation of the highest that our civilization has produced.

2. Wide reading from both classic and modern authors should be encouraged. The number of books read is of less importance than the kind of books read. The object is to give children a normal viewpoint on the past and the present.

3. Wide reading that takes into account varieties of taste is desirable. The number of books read is important because, since no individual can in his own lifetime get even a millionth part of the possible experiences, wide reading gives vicarious expression of what other men have thought, felt, and done. Books are valuable for clarifying thought and getting a perspective on the world of the past and present. The emphasis here is pleasure as well as profit in reading. The books read are to be those which have at least a fair degree of literary worth.

4. Children of adolescent age are to read anything they enjoy reading, no matter what the literary value of the books. Since standards of what books are suitable have changed and are continually changing, it is not well to say what a child should or should not read. There is no authoritative source of what the child enjoys reading but the child himself. When the child is ready for the classics, he will read them. Surfeit of reading poor books is depended upon to give him a desire for better literature. The child will change the type of books when his reading needs changes.

Theories 1, 2, and 3 are held in varying degrees by the schools, libraries, and the home. Theory 4 has not been

accepted by those who are responsible for the well-being and education of adolescent children.

As a rule, high-school libraries and public libraries favor wide reading, in order to appeal to as many children as possible and to allow for the widest possible range of taste. Emphasis is laid on the formation of the reading habit. The high-school library establishes the reading habit in children who are prospective library users in adult life. In a way there seems to be a conspiracy on the part of the libraries to keep the library chain unbroken. The elementary-school library and the children's department of the public library lead to the high-school library, and then on to the public library again. The library hopes that the individual will be a library user from the time he learns to read, continuously throughout his life; but, more than this, it is a part of the library objectives to guide and direct the reading of the individual in such a way that his reading taste will constantly improve.

If one is to encourage a child to read more widely, one must begin with his present stock of experiences, his present store of mental and emotional reactions. He must be given a wide choice, so that he will be able to satisfy his different tastes. That means, of course, that the library collection must be very extensive, if all the tastes of every child, existent and to be cultivated, are consulted. Care must be taken, too, that a wide selection does not mean an indiscriminate one. The poorly written or "thin" book, the vicious or sensational book, and those that give distorted views of life and people have no place in any library, and especially not in a collection of books for adolescent children. The school and public libraries take the child where they find him, give him the best book that he will enjoy at the time, and lead him on to better and better books as he is ready for them. The great books of all ages and times are the reading goal for which the libraries

are trying to prepare their readers. In order that such books may appeal to the readers, the library should have editions that are attractively bound and well-illustrated. Every device known in library procedure is used to hasten the time when the taste for these books that represent the best can be enjoyed by the readers. If the reading habit can be well established in the high-school pupil, by interesting him in books and by persuading him of their pleasure-giving qualities instead of by pressure, there is every reason to suppose that reading will be one of his leisure occupations in adult life. The whole process of guidance for leisure reading is one of growth, of giving children standards that they can understand, of putting them in touch with a collection of books that is varied, living, and vital. The classics have earned their place on the library shelves because they have withstood the lapse of time. Modern literature has a place on the library shelves because it is the stuff of which present life is made. What is going on in the world about us has a claim to our attention. But the school library must assume a responsibility for the kind of books that it makes available for the pupil.

It is not possible to state how much the training in literature that children receive in their high-school English courses has influenced their leisure reading, either in quantity or in quality. But, judging from the prevailing literary tastes of older people, it would seem that their choice of leisure reading was little affected by the reading they did in their classes. Few of the present generation of educated men and women who were trained to understand Shakespeare go to see Shakespearean plays performed on the stage. If there were a demand for Shakespeare plays, commercialized entertainment would provide them. In like manner, Milton's *Paradise Lost* was taught to whole hosts of pupils who do not show that it has affected their

reading taste, in the kind or amount of poetry they read. It is mainly through play and pleasure that quantity in reading may be obtained, and quality brought to a higher level.

In the main, teachers believe that the reading of adolescent children should be highly selective, that quality rather than quantity should be emphasized. They feel that the time given to reading is so short in comparison to all the other work and play activity that it is too precious to be wasted in reading books of the mediocre type. Then, too, it is not at all certain that the reading of poorer types of literature leads eventually to a taste for the classics. After a steady diet of detective stories will the pupil not be farther from the goal of good literature than he would have been without that reading? Since the reader of such cheap literature has added few new concepts, and has come into contact with but few of the possible human interactions, there is little likelihood of any transfer of interest to literature that is universal. On the other hand, reading the best literature that our civilization has to offer keeps the reader acquainted with only the best that has been thought and said in the world and hastens the process of acquiring an acceptable reading taste. The insistence that the books read in the classroom should be masterpieces of literature will at least give children familiarity with a few classics, and will help them to form some standards of judgment. Even if the exposure to good literature does not result in creating within him an immediate desire to read good books for pleasure, there is nevertheless a gain of sorts; for when he reaches maturity there is every likelihood that he will have acquired the necessary broadening experiences that only the unlimited appeal of the classics will satisfy.

The organization of the school library favors its use as a source of reading for enjoyment. It is organized for the

service of the individual, and pleasure reading is an individual matter. The resources of the library include material to satisfy intellectual curiosity. It has double objectives: that of developing the reading habits in pupils and that of enriching the subject matter taught. Both these objectives lend themselves to providing the books and magazines that pupils enjoy and that admit of guidance of an informal kind. The librarian should be thoroughly acquainted with the books in the library. If she also knows the pupils, she is eminently fitted to take charge of their leisure reading. The librarian can not only suggest a book to read but she can give the child the book, and can discuss it with him in a friendly way. The actual book handed to a child is, if he enjoys it, worth more to him than any number of titles of books which he reads from a list. Only when a book list is made for a particular pupil to meet his particular needs, will it have any value to that child.

Children are no more consistent in their behavior—using the term in the psychological sense—than are grown-ups. John and Susie are very different beings at home, at school, in the library, or with companions of their age. The attitude of pupils during and after school, in the classroom, and in the library, is not the same. The library has an atmosphere that is conducive to reading for leisure. The freedom to choose books and to browse among possible sources of enjoyment all gives the student a sense of independence which is very pleasant to him. The librarian has no grade to offer to pupils for reading. The only inducement she can hold out is that of pleasure. And that inducement is enough, for expending energy on the play level is a need of their being. Instead of a formal book report, which for a great majority of pupils takes away from the enjoyment of reading, the librarian holds an informal book talk, not always full and searching, but one that gives the child a chance to express himself about the

reading if he wishes to do so. If he wishes, however, to withhold his comments on his reactions to the book he has read, he is altogether at liberty to do so, and that, too, adds to the pleasure of reading.

All the devices for guiding reading, such as suggestion, advertising, and exhibiting special collections, are methods used by the library to direct reading in an informal way. The chance to browse among many books is a pleasure in itself. Many pupils discover not only a good book to read, but also a hobby and future avocation as they delve among the treasures of the library. Guiding leisure reading is a library objective. The public taxes itself to provide the services of a public library, because it recognizes that, although the library renders great service by providing for young and old alike an opportunity for self-education, by giving information and by satisfying intellectual curiosity, it also serves the community by supplying books and magazines for leisure reading. Fifty per cent of the books issued by public libraries belongs to the juvenile and adult fiction class. In high-school libraries the number of books issued for pleasure reading is about 35 per cent. To supply the right kind of reading for the mass of impressionable adolescent children is a matter of great importance to the individual child, to the school, and to the community of which the child is a part.

The home is vitally interested in how children spend their leisure. For parents it is a highly personal matter, in which their interests and emotions are concerned. Although it is at present generally conceded that many parents do not assume their responsibilities as seriously as they were wont to do, still it is certain that of all the factors in the child's environment, parents more than any other agency are more directly interested in their own children's welfare. As is the case with any maladjustment in our social structure, we hear of the parents who do not

discharge their obligations toward their children rather than of the thousands of parents who do.

But with the best intentions in the world, parents find themselves unable to guide their children in the ways in which they shall go. Many times, the parents actually do not know how to direct the leisure activities of their children wisely. It must be patent to every one that the complexity of the age, which affects the environment of children as well as of grown-ups, makes the task of guiding children a serious as well as a complicated problem. Among parents there are three well-defined attitudes toward reading as a leisure occupation:

1. There are parents who look upon reading for pleasure as a waste of time. It apparently serves no useful purpose, except perhaps that it keeps the children quiet, and that in itself is at times desirable. Lesson-getting they can see has some use in future practical life, but reading just for pleasure seems all nonsense. In their eyes the reading of fiction is good for nothing but the inculcation of false ideas. If the reading cannot serve some evident purpose either present or future, what use has it? Many children of practical parents must take leisure reading as a stolen pleasure, must make excuses and pretences for indulging in an activity that serves to feed the imagination. If more of these highly practical parents knew the real needs of adolescent youth, they would take a different attitude toward reading as a leisure occupation.

2. Many of the present generation of parents grew up without a wide reading experience. They believe that reading is a desirable way of spending leisure time, but do not know enough about books to guide their children in the proper choice. A book to some parents is a thing to be respected, because it is in print. They do not know that books are like people: some wholesome and inspiring, others vicious and demoralizing, still others inane and

shallow. Many of the books in the home library are chosen with no knowledge of the real needs of the child. There is no standard, no selection possible where there is no knowledge of books. The children of such parents may hit upon books that are worth while and pleasurable, but it is just as possible that the books that they read in the home library will be of the mentally enervating kind.

3. The great majority of parents are sufficiently interested in the welfare of their children to inform themselves about their leisure needs. Through parent-teacher associations, through study classes, by consulting with the teacher and librarian, they prepare themselves to help in the guidance of their children. After all, the spending of leisure time is largely a home problem. The school and the library can help to guide pupils during certain hours in the day, but it is the parents who actually have the direction of the child when he has the leisure time to spend. Were it not for the active coöperation of parents much of the good reading now being done would not be undertaken. In the case of highly trained and interested parents, they do more than their share toward building up in their children a reading taste which makes for immediate pleasure and yet which gives them standards for their future reading.

In this whole matter of reading as a leisure occupation, there is a type done by children that is wholly undirected and surreptitious. There is, in some cases, a wide discrepancy between what some children read and what they are advised to read. The reading lists compiled by teachers and librarians sometimes represent what the children should read rather than what they actually read. In the school environment especially, the pupil will read a book on the home-reading list because he must of necessity do so. He may write a book review in the manner in which the teacher suggests, but he will keep his real opinion of the book to himself. In the library, a freer expression is

likely because the range of books from which he has to choose is greater, and there is therefore more likelihood that he will find a book he enjoys. But even in the library, there is an air of literature and standards. The mention of a "penny dreadful" borrowed from another pupil seems out of place in the classic atmosphere.

To ascertain from first-hand knowledge what the pupils read when there is no pressure of school grades, or of library atmosphere, it is essential that the books and magazines in the home, in the bookstores, and in the drug stores be examined. High-school boys and girls pass on from hand to hand books and magazines that are not recommended by those interested in their education. In most cases this literature is not objectionable from the moral point of view. The material is of the "thin" kind, harmless serials so diluted that little more than empty words remain. They are the food for the tired pupil who wants pleasure without mental effort. However, there are books and magazines which circulate secretly among adolescent pupils that are distinctly of the "sex" and "gutter" type. These books contain sensational cross sections of life with just enough truth in them to give distorted views. Many times these unsuitable books are read in school after they have been concealed in the outside paper cover of a classic. Thus does the wolf disguise himself in sheep's clothing. In one school it was recently discovered that the bookstore near the school building was responsible for much of the undesirable material which circulated among pupils, and steps were taken by the Woman's Club to enforce the law against the sellers of obscene literature.

The problem of teaching the adolescent child how to fill his spare time in a pleasant and yet profitable manner is one which should engage the best efforts of educators. Reading, being a major leisure occupation and one that engages the interest of the individual from the time he

first learns to read until the end of his life, should be encouraged in the adolescent child. For he will always, as he grows up, have a comparatively large amount of leisure time; and it is important that such time be well spent. If the child is to be encouraged in the formation of good reading habits and a worth-while literary taste, coöperation is necessary from all the important directing agencies in his environment—the home, the school, and the library. For no one of them can guide him single-handed. Each has a separate function in the direction of the child's leisure occupations; but all, working together, can develop in him a taste for worth-while reading that will be at once profitable and pleasurable.

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CHAPTER VIII

DEVICES FOR INCREASING VOLUNTARY READING

At the present time, secondary schools are stressing a wide reading experience for pupils. Teachers in all subjects are trying to interest pupils in books and magazines dealing with the subject matter taught. Thus, in history, not only the movements and significance of historical events receive attention in the classroom, but the teacher also suggests outside reading in the hope that the pupils will read historical material during their leisure time. In literature classes, the teacher considers it quite as important to develop an attitude favorable to reading as to inculcate standards of literary taste.

Much the same type of reading guidance goes on in the school library. The librarian takes advantage of the reading interests aroused in the classroom, and, in addition, initiates and carries on directed reading guidance of the library type. Since the library has a large general collection of books and magazines as well as specialized books on various subjects, she can offer pupils a wide range of choice, and therefore can reach many pupils the teachers cannot reach. For that reason, and owing to the fact that the atmosphere of the library is informal, many pupils go to the librarian for reading guidance. Not only is directed reading guidance undertaken in the school library, but the librarian in order to reach all the pupils in the school has recourse to devices that are calculated to make a subjective appeal to the attention and interests of the pupils. There

are numerous devices which may be used to increase interest in good reading.

Advertising is one of the modern methods of creating a demand, and this is one of the major devices that the school library can use to good advantage. Advertising is an invitation to the public to take advantage of certain commodities or services offered for its use. This invitation may range from the need of Uneeda Biscuit to the need of a trip around the world. Attention is attracted by advertising in varying degrees, from a mere passing glance, through all stages up to close observation and a resulting desire for the article advertised, the ultimate object being that the public develop an interest in what is offered, and a demand be created for things perhaps not desired before.

The first requisite of an advertisement is, then, that it attract attention. Of the countless objects that act as the stimuli to the sense organs there are very few that penetrate one's consciousness sufficiently to form a unified mental picture. The fact that curiosity is inborn in the individual gives advertising a psychological basis; the curiosity urge which is more or less developed in all human beings is utilized in advertising. Certain elements are presented that have the effect of attracting and holding the attention of the individual.

Some of the means by which attention may be attracted are: loud noises; moving things; bright things; unfamiliar objects in familiar places; familiar things in unfamiliar places; combinations of the familiar with the unfamiliar; constant repetition; novelty; constant suggestion.

Making loud noises was a primitive way of attracting attention which is still quite effective. But the loud noises must be spasmodic to attract attention; for if continued over a long period of time, a noise loses its power of surprising the senses. The constant whirl of machinery is un-

noticed by those who spend their working time in that atmosphere. But spasmodic noises demand attention. The loud blatant noises of fairs and circuses demand notice. Obviously, from the very nature of the school library, this mode of advertising cannot be utilized.

Moving things, too, attract attention. The modern electric sign is a good example of this. The sign remains stationary just long enough to give the reader time to sense what it is all about. The attention of the reader has been attracted by the movement, and the second impression is made on the reader's mind almost before he is aware of it. Although moving things are not yet a part of library publicity, movement in poster making is both possible and practical.

Bright things attract. Even a tiny infant will grasp at a bright object; the amount of jewelry sold would indicate that grown-ups, too, enjoy and are attracted by glitter. Likewise, the "Great White Way" attracts myriads of people by its dazzling floods of light. The school library can take advantage of this inherent love of bright color and objects by making the posters as colorful as is consistent with good taste. A brighter key in the combination and choice of color attracts by the very brilliancy of the composition.

Unfamiliar things in familiar places have the power to attract. An Indian war club in the show window of a store in the crowded district of a large city attracts attention. It causes a feeling of surprise to see the Indian war club in such incongruous surroundings. This psychological method of getting attention can be utilized in the school library by having a case in which objects of interest are displayed. The interest aroused in the material exhibited can be further enhanced by having books about the objects set out near the display case.

Familiar things in unfamiliar places give a glow of recog-

dition which fires the imagination and brings back old associations. A large poster advertising a well-known American commodity commands immediate attention from an American, if seen, for example, on a billboard in Paris. And that attention may be so strong that it not only creates an urgent demand for the article, but it may even cause a wave of desire for the old associations of the homeland. The school library can utilize such emotional reactions in a limited degree. Displaying in the library the projects made in the classrooms will produce somewhat the same effect, though, of course, not such an emotional one. Small models of stage settings made in the drama class; sets of science apparatus; garments designed and made in the sewing classes—all these have the possibility of giving the thrill of recognition when seen in the library surrounding.

Combinations of the familiar with the unfamiliar have the power to attract; for the familiar is at once recognized, the unfamiliar attracts attention, curiosity is aroused at the combination presented, and thus interest is generated. A piece of familiar cotton cloth can be displayed, together with pictures showing all the processes involved from the planting of the cotton seed to the manufacture of the final product. In the arts, a completed etching can be displayed, with the plates and a demonstration of the process by which the finished whole is produced.

Repetition is one of the devices that the creative artists use in literature and in art. The initial impression made on the reader or the observer may not be sufficiently strong to give the impression desired; for the mind can take in only a limited amount at a time, the limit depending on the original endowment of the individual and on his training. But even vague impressions can be strengthened into attention and interest through repetition. The effect is cumulative. In the school library the constant invita-

tion to read, with the suggestions for reading which posters, book exhibits, and the very atmosphere of the library offer, in time will bring results.

Something entirely new to our experience impels attention. Commercial advertisers take advantage of this fact by putting on the market all kinds of novelties, which gain popularity rapidly, not because they are useful or beautiful, but solely because of their newness. In the school library the pupils' interest in the new and novel things in their environment can be utilized to increase reading, through posters, book lists, displays of book jackets, and exhibits of books.

Constant suggestion may take various forms: repetition, variety, surprise, shock, or stimulation of the senses. By some means or other, the vague impressions must be forced to become so distinct as to compel attention. The effect of an advertisement may be strong enough to receive a passing glance, and yet not strong enough to arouse that curiosity or pleasure that will make it take precedent over the mass of other stimuli clamoring to be noticed. In the use of suggestion, there is a conscious effort to give certain things precedence over others by an appeal to the individual through his sense organs. Repetition has the power of suggestion. Unconsciously the individual will be acted upon by the ever recurring suggestion. Especially in the realm of thought is this true. But repetition may become monotonous and tiresome if it lacks the vital qualities of abiding interest. In the school library, an understanding of adolescent characteristics and the numerous factors that go to make up the environment of the pupils will give the librarian the basis for organizing a campaign to increase good reading. The power of suggestion can be utilized in the posters, bulletin board, and the book-browsing corner.

Public libraries were slow to avail themselves of the

benefits that advertising could confer. Books in themselves were supposed to create an adequate appeal to the readers' interest, and advertising for a reading public was considered unnecessary, if not actually undignified and unworthy. Such an attitude was entirely justifiable in the days when educational opportunities were granted only to the select few, whom the library could reach without trying; for they read naturally, as a matter of course. But with the increasing demands for democratization and equalization of social life and of educational opportunities, new responsibilities have come to the library. Now, instead of functioning only for the select few, the library supplies books for greater numbers and more varied types of people. Its service, therefore, has a wider and more diversified range than it has hitherto possessed.

Furthermore, the present wider distribution of educational opportunity has forced many people to read who had few natural inclinations toward such occupation. It has become the task of the library to make books attractive and desirable to these people. Thus there have arisen the many varied forms of library advertising now in use. The library has had a very large part to play in furnishing leisure reading for the masses.

With the extension of library facilities has come the development of greater library service. Book wagons are now sent out by state library commissions to the rural districts; libraries are established in factories, hospitals, and business houses. The library, as said before, has become democratic; it now offers its services to the whole people. Therefore, since it has something valuable to offer to the American people, it now advertises its wares in order to attract the indifferent and to raise the standard of reading both for children and for adults. The library has taken its place along with the other educational agencies as the popularizer of education.

In the high school the library becomes even more distinctly a part of the educational system, and, with the objectives of secondary education in mind, plans to serve the school community in all possible ways. Like the public library, the school library is no longer an aristocratic institution; it educates not only the select few but the masses as well. It brings the services and resources of the library to the entire school community. Consequently, every possible advertising device that will enlarge the scope of library usefulness and at the same time educate the pupils, should be utilized. For, just as commercial advertisements often create a demand for material things, so library advertising should help to create a demand for intellectual things.

In order to satisfy such a demand adequately, the publicity schemes of the school library must be educative, must be adapted to the level of mental development of the pupils, and must appeal to their predominant instincts and interests. What boy of high-school age will not feel the urge to read a book which, the book jacket promises, "tells you exactly how to construct your own radio set"? Or what girl who is clever with the needle does not long to possess a book of fancywork designs, when she sees sample pages of those works of art peering at her from the nearest bulletin board? The appeal made by such advertising must be definite, and must be vivid enough to fix the child's attention. As every one knows who deals much with adolescent children, one of the big problems is that of getting them to concentrate and to observe closely. Their minds are occupied by a million vague, half-formed ideas at once, and their attention is scattered. Hence the advertising in the library must be of a type that will cause them to focus their attention and to observe closely and carefully the things around them.

One important function that good library advertising

has is that of furnishing students with a large body of background material. The mere recognition of persons, places, pictures, characters in books, is a valuable part of any child's education. And even if he does not read all the books he sees displayed or advertised, the familiarity he gains with their titles and with the names of authors and characters, contributes largely to his general store of knowledge.

By means of advertising, too, we can create in the child a certain power of selection. He reads the comments on the book jackets. He looks at the books themselves, criticizes the bindings, the print, the general make-up of the book; perhaps he skims through the contents of some of them. He thus sharpens his judicial sense—in a superficial way, perhaps; but no one can be thorough when first developing the critical faculty.

In gathering material with which to advertise the resources of the library, we must never forget, even for a moment, that one of the most important instincts we have to deal with in the child is that of curiosity. His mind is constantly reaching out for new experiences; the satiety that comes with years of sense stimulation has not yet been reached. To satisfy this intellectual curiosity, an advertising campaign must not only appeal to the child's present store of knowledge, but must give him new ideas, new information to absorb; and this fresh material must be linked up with the old in such a manner that the acquisition of new funds of knowledge comes about gradually and naturally.

Quick results from advertising have never been matters of accident or chance. They have followed because whoever planned the advertisements had made a careful study of the interests and needs of the group for which the advertising was being prepared. Likewise in the school an analysis of the community in which the school is located,

and a study of the needs of the school population are necessary in order to determine satisfactorily what general policy shall be followed in advertising the library to the students. In some communities the practical rather than the æsthetic aspects of life predominate; in others, interest centers on things intellectual; while in still others people may be concerned largely with social events. For each of these different groups a different method of approach is necessary.

The needs of the school population will, as said before, be another important factor in determining the methods of publicity to be used. Is wide reading to be the goal? Is the use of reference material to be increased? Is it desirable that a wider use of illustrative material be made? Is closer coöperation with the teaching activities of the school to be brought about? What type of reader is to be influenced? What material in the library is not being widely enough read? What kind of service is to be stressed? The answers to all these questions will determine, in large part, the kind of advertising the library is to use.

Creating a demand in the library implies the responsibility of satisfying the demand. It is a crime against childhood to arouse intellectual curiosity without being able to satisfy it. Being able to supply the demand at some later time does not repair the damage; belated satisfaction is but the ghost of the thrill that immediate fulfillment offers. The child gets the maximum of pleasure out of the book at the time he has been stimulated to want it. Therefore the library collection should be studied carefully before advertising is begun. The state of the book supply plus the outstanding book orders will in part determine whether the publicity decided on will be directed toward single and unrelated subjects, a series of single subjects, a series of remotely related subjects, complex devices in which other

departments of the school coöperate with the library, or toward a campaign having for its purpose either specific library service, specific types of readers to be influenced, or specific material for which to find readers. No matter what kind of advertising is decided upon, it must be planned for in advance, especially if coöperation from other school agencies is desired. The facilities for effective advertising, such as illustrated material, bulletin boards, space for posters, poster material, display cases, and so forth, must be on hand before plans for the advertising campaign can be formulated.

With the manifold activities carried on in the high-school library, advertising takes time that might possibly be devoted to other types of work. The question then arises whether the time given to it pays. An affirmative answer is possible only if the publicity is well carried out. Whether or not it is effective, an answer to the following questions will reveal: Does it please? Does it teach? Is it timely? Is it suitable? Does it bring the results planned? Is it furthering the objectives of the school? If an affirmative answer cannot be given to these questions, one of two things is obvious: either the publicity is not well organized, or the book collection will not warrant stimulation.

Timeliness is an important factor in library publicity. There are times when attention is more readily given than at other times. In the commercial world the spirit of giving at the Christmas season is utilized to the fullest extent. In the school, the enthusiasm for the great men of our history, for the great events in our tradition should be used to intensify and clarify that interest. Certain special weeks are set aside for special interests in every community, any or all of which may be the occasion for advertising to the pupils the resources of the school library on that particular subject. These occasions for advertising will vary in different localities, and from year to year. Here-

with is given a comprehensive list of such occasions which may be utilized for advertising in the school library:

September

Constitution Week
American Indian Week
Indian Day

October

Citizens of America Week
Fire Prevention Week
Chicago Fire
Good Health Week
Columbus Day
National Picture Week
Roosevelt's birthday

November

World Court Week
Armistice Day
Fathers' and Sons' Week
Children's Book Week
American Education Week

December

Safety Week or Golden Rule Week
Christmas

January

Thrift Week
Benjamin Franklin's birthday
Robert E. Lee's birthday
Good Roads Week

February

Better Speech Week
Boy Scout Anniversary Week
Lincoln's birthday
National Drama Week
Travel Month
Washington's birthday
Valentine Day

American Ideals Week

March

Clean-up Week

Girl Scouts' International Month

April

Forest Protection Week

John Burroughs Day

National Garden Week

Kindness to Animals Week

Girls' Week

Shakespeare's birthday

May

Child Health Day

Mothers' and Daughters' Week

Music Week

Memorial Day

Boys' Week

International Boys' Week

June

Better Homes Week

Flag Day

All the occasions for advertising cannot be observed in any one library. What is chosen from the list will depend on the community. It is well to observe the days of local interest, for such participation gives children respect for tradition and a feeling of civic pride, and helps create in them a loyalty that they will later transfer to state and national affairs. In the school library, particular attention should be given to Children's Book Week. A well-rounded program of activities within the library itself should be planned and the coöperation of all the other educational interests in the school and the community should be enlisted. An effort should be made to broadcast the message of "good books" to every man, woman, and child in the school community. Very helpful suggestions

and attractive posters can be procured from the Association of Book Publishers.¹ The *Wilson Bulletin* for October, 1922, suggests ways in which Children's Book Week can be carried out in an effective manner:

1. Get from the local library, scout executives and book dealers, announcements of special exhibits, story hours, children's days, and authors' appearances that will take place during the week, and make announcements in school.

2. From the local public library, the state library commission or the American Library Association, 86 East Randolph Street, Chicago, get lists of books recommended for children's reading and ownership.

3. Devote an assembly hour during the week to a talk by some author or to a special book program. Have the boys and girls discuss books they have read.

4. Have the children write essays about their favorite books or book characters. Have the best essays read in the special assembly hour devoted to observance of Children's Book Week.

5. In the English classes, have the children tell about their favorite characters in books read outside of school.

6. In geography and history classes devote a special period to telling about the books that will lend interest to study, that is, stories about other countries, historical stories, books of travel, and so forth.

7. In the art classes, have the students design posters for local use by libraries, bookstores, schools, and so forth. Have a book-plate designing contest.

8. In the manual training classes have bookcases made. Use the Thomas Bailey Aldrich bookcase design or some other simple plans. (See *St. Nicholas*, November, 1921.)

9. Have a costume party, or play, with characters from books. Let the children help write a play with their favorite characters. Prizes of books could be given to the most successful costumes or representations.

10. Get the parents interested by having the children report on

¹ Association of Book Publishers, 25 West 33rd St., New York City.

books their fathers and mothers like best, and what books they liked when they were children.

11. Talk over with the presidents of the local women's clubs and parent-teacher associations their plans for Children's Book Week programs. The public library or state library commission will help plan programs and supply reference material.

12. Urge local motion picture theaters to show recommended children's book films during the week.

Education Week is another occasion for which the interest of the whole school community is likely to be enlisted. The plans for observation of the week are so varied that they cannot but reach every type of interest in the community. The school library can coöperate with the committees that have the plans under advisement. An infinite amount of library material will be needed to enrich the message of each day. By adequate posters, exhibits, bulletin notices, and special book collections, the school library can help to bring the purpose of the week before the pupils of the school. Since the general plans for such an observance admit of great variety, the details for library coöperation must be made far in advance. Special material for the different days may require book loans from other libraries, and the collection of pictures and pamphlets of local interest. Each day must have its special poster and bulletin material. Only by careful attention to details can the library help in carrying out a program so varied within a single week.

One of the outstanding methods of library publicity is the use of the poster. The traditional library policy in the matter of posters has always been restraint. In a dignified but persuasive manner, the library called attention to the books and to the service it was prepared to render. This method brought results at a time when all advertising agencies practiced restraint in color and form. However, with the new, prevailing overstimulation of the senses

in the pupil's environment, the old method of library publicity will not bring the desired results. In the present day of urgent, unrestrained advertising, the slow, dignified methods of suggestion used in the past fail to attract the attention, or to hold it long enough to produce action. A new conception of library publicity to meet present-day conditions must be developed.

An examination of posters used for modern commercial purposes shows the change just mentioned. In the appeal to the senses, the tendency is to increase the sense stimulation to the highest possible degree. The color is pure, raw, brilliant, the effect purposely garish. In arrangement, unusual and striking patterns are used. To compel attention, to surprise attention, to shock into attention, to obtain novelty at any cost, is the purpose of such methods.

The school library has a different purpose, a different commodity, and an educational responsibility that would make it inadvisable to follow commercial methods in advertising. But the stimulation planned in library posters must approximate to some degree that provided by the commercial product if it is to attract. The colors used in library posters may well be bright, but they must show restraint.

A poster may have all the elements that will attract and hold the pupil's attention, and still be unsuitable for high-school use, because it does not contain elements that will help him to form standards of artistic judgment. For it must be remembered that the library is a part of the educational system, and is, more than any other agency in the school, the place where the intellectual standards of the school are correlated. Hence the posters that are used to advertise the library should not only attract attention, but to be really educative they should conform to the accepted principles of good art. Bad art is as vicious as bad literature; and any amount of literature, no matter how good,

will fall far short of creating good taste in students, if the posters by means of which the books are advertised are inartistically designed.

Poster headings must of necessity be short. The size of the poster background, or the bulletin-board space for posters, is necessarily limited, and only a very small portion of the space can be used for the heading. Besides, psychologically the shorter the heading, the more effective it is. The attention is more likely to be attracted by a short heading in large type than a longer one in smaller type. The printing used in the title must be large enough to call attention. The size of the type can be increased in proportion as the number of words is diminished. Then, too, since the time which can be given to poster making is limited, short headings are desirable. The headings may take the form of exposition; explanation; interrogation; a tickler, arousing interest in the space; a command to "Watch this space." There are numberless headings possible for posters. In the school library headings taken from the titles of books are very effective; as, for example:

Adventures in Friendship
Boy Heroes in Fiction
Bread Winners
Cabbages and Kings
The Call of the Wild
Careers of Danger and Daring
Choosing a Career
The Classic Point of View
Conquering the Air
Days before History
Diplomatic Portraits
Familiar Trees
Famous Buildings
Famous Men of Rome
Famous Pictures
Feeding the Family

Fisherman's Luck
Greek Leaders
Heroes of Service
Heroes of the Scientific World
Heroes of the Wilds
Heroines of Fiction
Heroines of Service
Hoofs and Claws
How to be an Athlete
How to Know Oriental Rugs
How to Study Pictures
How to Use Your Mind
The Human Side of Plants
Ideas of Good and Evil
In the Palace of the King
Innocents Abroad
Insect Artizans and Their Work
Knowing and Using Words
Leading American Inventors
The Light Bringers
Makers of Our History
Making a Newspaper
Making the Movies
A Man for the Ages
The Master Builder
Money and Its Uses
More than Conquerors
New Voices
Northern Neighbors
Old, Old Tales from the Old, Old Book
The Old World in the New
Our Foreign Born Citizens
Our Presidents
Our Vanishing Forests
Party Pointers
Principles of Correct Dress
The Real Business of Living
Real Things in Nature

Rejected Heroes
Roughing It
Shakespeare's Heroines
Science and Human Affairs
The Significance of the Fine Arts
Social Life in the Insect World
Songs of the Workaday World
South!
Things Worth Making
Things You Won't Believe
Thinking It Out
This Earth of Ours
A Tramp Abroad
Under the Big Top
Vanity Fair
Varied Types
What Is Electricity?
What's on the Worker's Mind
When They Were Children
When You Write a Letter
The Wide, Wide World
Why the Weather?
Wilderness Babies
The Wonder Workers
Your United States

The above list contains only a few of the headings which books can suggest. The headings which follow have all been tried with success in various school libraries:

Adventures While You Read
Adventuring in Books
After School Days—What?
Against Odds
Around the World in a Series of Books
Beauty in Common Things
"Be Four Square"
The Best Leisure Investment—Reading
Best Sellers of Bygone Days

Books about Your Hobby
Books Are Friends—Know More of Them
Books Talked About
Buccaneers and Pirates Too!
Bury Your Cares in a Book
Cash a Check at the Bank of Knowledge—the Library
Discouraged? The Right Book Will Help You
Do You Need Inspiration? Books Furnish It
For that Idle Hour
Get a Good Laugh—There Are Gay Books
Give Parties That Are Different
Gloom Dispellers
How to Work, How to Earn
Indians! Hist!
An Intellectual Service Station—the Library
It Can Be Done
Know Your City
Learn to Earn
A Little Nonsense
Other Lands
Over the Top!
Pals! Me and My Books
Playing the Game
“The Play’s the Thing”
Poems That Say What You Want to Say
Romance is Everywhere
See America First
Ship Ahoy!
Springtime is Gypsytime
Stop! Look! Read!
Strange Places and Peoples
Tarry-at-Home Travels
Things for Boys to Make
Tune Up on the Rhythm of Poetry
What Everybody Is Talking About
What Others Have Done, You Can Do
“The World Is Full of a Number of Things”
The World of Make-Believe

A number of series of posters is possible under the following headings:

Get acquainted with.....
Who is who and why.....
Lest we forget.....
Are you ready for your chance?.....
How does it work?.....

Variety in posters is highly desirable. The fact that there is change will attract the attention of the pupils and arouse their curiosity. The question, What next?, will create in their mind a desire to observe. Through constant interest in the posters, a habit of noticing the library advertising becomes established in the pupils, and thereby the results which the librarian plans are hastened. There are many ways in which variety in posters can be obtained. The color scheme can be changed from time to time. The headings may be put in different places on the posters, or omitted entirely if the poster tells the message, or can create the interest planned without the use of a title. The place of the poster may be changed to a different part of the library, thus putting it within the eye focus of other pupils and making pupils who had become familiar with the old location of the poster notice that it is there no longer. But it is in the arrangement of the posters that variety can be most readily obtained.

Too slavish following of a set pattern results in monotony. A real æsthetic pleasure is to be obtained from irregularity within a unity. For this balance and proportion must vary from geometric precision, and yet have composition in the art sense. A poster so organized will make an impression on the pupil strong enough to create a response, and will give the glow of pleasure that comes with art appreciation. Symmetry is not necessarily the result of a fixed and formal arrangement. Rather is it the proper re-

lationship of the elements that make up the poster. It is the balance that makes for beauty.

In planning a series of posters on unrelated subjects, the widest latitude is possible in the choice of color, headings, and arrangements. In a series of posters on related subjects, some unity in the general plan is best, although the separate posters in the series should vary within a set ratio. In a series, it is possible to make the relationship of the posters in the series clear by starting the first poster with a single idea, and by additions from time to time to the original poster make the idea more complex, and the appeal of greater extent. This is a cumulative way of getting interest, for the pupils become eager to note what is already on the poster, and they anticipate what is likely to appear next.

In the commercial world, advertisers pay for "white space" for their copy. They do this in order to insure that there will be no overcrowding, and to have the central idea stand out. For a single strong impression will receive attention much more readily than a number of minor appeals. Thus a show window crowded with small, usual articles of merchandise is not likely to leave a unified impression, while the same window with one central article displayed with only a few minor ones, which are closely related to it, will attract unlimited attention. In library posters, there must be one central point of emphasis with only enough material on the poster to make a unified impression of the whole.

The size of the poster, location in the room, and the height of placing must be taken into consideration in planning for the effect desired. The emphasis point or idea to be stressed must be arranged in relation to the heading, the list of books, and the material supplementary to the idea emphasized. The height at which the poster is hung must be studied in relation to the height of the pupils

for whom the poster is designed, so that the eye focus is on the emphasis point, and the book list can be read without eyestrain.

There are simple ways of getting the desired poster effects. If a picture is used as the center of the idea of the poster, drawing a heavy black line around it will bring it out more clearly and will give it the outstanding place in the composition. Getting movement in posters is essential. Choosing illustrations that express motion is the simplest way of obtaining the necessary effect of movement. Cut-out pictures in a single color mounted on a contrasting color, if arranged in an informal manner, convey the feeling of motion. Diversity can best be obtained by the use of pictures, maps, illustrations, and drawings that have irregular lines. Square pictures and postal cards can be used for other decorative purposes where motion is not the psychological effect desired. They can be made to serve for the static posters.

The use of the silhouette in poster-making has possibilities. When large, it expresses great dignity. One poster in which large profiles of Lincoln and of Washington were mounted on a bright blue background gave an impression of the characters of the two great men, and something of the feeling of their significance to the world to-day. Silhouette cut-outs of the movement kind are well adapted to the long, horizontal poster.

Closely related to the silhouette is the scissors picture. In skilled hands, these pictures are artistic both in form and in color. Simple compositions and the use of few colors convey the impression better than do complicated themes and elaborate colorings. The observer should be able to take in the message of the poster at a single glance. Scissors pictures can be made to show movement; and, besides, they have the advantage that the heading is also a scissors product and blends in perfectly with the rest of

the poster material, thus making for a single unified impression.

For decorative purposes, and to supplement the poster and bulletin space in the library, it is often advisable to have a frieze for special occasions. The space used is usually the top unused shelf space which is too high for the pupils to reach. Repetition of design with variations gives the space decorative value. Where repetition is wanted, making linoleum blocks is effective and labor saving. Patterns are cut out of thick, battleship linoleum. Inked pads furnished the desired color. By means of these blocks the design may be duplicated any number of times. This device is especially useful when large spaces are to be decorated with a repetition of design.

Poster-making requires special materials. Special pens and brushes give the varied effects. The following have been found effective for free-hand printing, drawing, and for fill-in work:

Esterbrook Text Writer Pens
 Hunt's Speedball Pens
 Newton-Stoakes Lettering Pens
 Camel's-hair paint brushes

The paper used in poster-making will vary in thickness, texture, and color according to the effect that the poster is designed to give. There is a wealth of art paper that can be used singly or in combination. Of the many kinds of paper available, the following are most generally used:

Mohawk Drawing Pads
 Bradley Assorted Colored Construction Paper

For coloring headings and poster drawings, the following are effective:

Kroma Tempera Colors
 Show Card Colors

Bradley Water Colors
Prang Crayonex
Crayons
Colored pencils
India ink

After posters have been made and used, they should be carefully put away for future use. They represent a great deal of time in planning and execution, and therefore should be made to serve again if they have been effective. There will be some posters that can be used only once, because they have only ephemeral interest, but the majority of posters can be used again. A scrapbook in which a history of every poster is kept is also useful. In this scrapbook should be kept notes on when the poster was used, what the effect of the poster was, what changes in its make-up could be suggested from the first experience with the poster, and any suggestions for substituting another poster if this one has not met with the degree of success that was planned for it. This scrapbook has two definite advantages: It shows the definite results of certain educational efforts, and it gives material for building future efforts. From the immediate, practical standpoint, it makes possible the use of the poster material already available at short notice, and in an intelligent manner.

For increasing voluntary reading, maps, too, may serve as an effective device. The "Map of Good Stories" gives the geographic background of books by well-known authors. The by-product of the use of this device is a desire on the part of the pupil to interest himself in place geography. Maps showing the particular geographic location of one particular author's works have a tendency to increase the circulation of his books, and also to enlarge the demand for all works on travel and biography. Certain authors lend themselves well to this type of appeal because there are specific books written that give the geographic background

of their works. The Dickens country, the Burns country, and the Scott country, are a few of the possible suggestions of this sort, which can be supplemented by the very fascinating books of the author.

Pupils may use maps in recording their vacation trips. These maps should be supplemented by pictures of the places visited, and a short description of the itinerary, written in a style that will create interest in the journey. A series of these trips during the early part of the school year will be found to interest the pupils and to increase the circulation of books of travel.

Bulletin boards are an essential part of school-library equipment. Library publicity cannot well be carried on without them. They can be used to display posters already mounted, or can be made to serve as the poster background. In the latter use, the component parts of the poster are fastened to the bulletin board by means of pins, or thumb tacks. When the bulletin board is used for poster purposes, all the rules that relate to poster-making should be observed. But it is as a display space that the bulletin board is most needed. Since the library correlates all the intellectual interests in the school, it must bring to the attention of the pupil things that it is well for him to know. Any intellectual contest in which pupils of high-school age can compete should be called to the attention of the pupil by means of notices on the bulletin board. Advertisements of such competitions as the poetry prize contests, oratorical contests, essay contests, and scholarship contests, have a legitimate place there. Full information about the contests should be on file in the library, and material for preparing for the contests should be made available.

Notices of the intellectual, artistic, and cultural opportunities in the immediate neighborhood and in the city should be given library publicity. This publicity may create interest where it did not exist, and strengthen inter-

ests already established. Outstanding plays called to the attention of the pupils will serve to make them discriminating theatergoers. Notices of motion pictures in the neighboring theaters which put on the screen the story of a worth-while book, should be placed on the bulletin board. This will serve a double purpose. It will set a standard for motion pictures and it will also advertise the book from which the film was made.

School trips planned to visit industries should be given bulletin space. An effort should be made to create an interest not only in the trip itself but also in the industry to be visited, with a view to making the pupils more intelligent observers. Books about the industry should be on display to give the needed information.

All the various national societies for the betterment of American life have something to offer which the pupils in the school cannot afford to miss. Posters and educational material issued by the National Vocational Guidance Association and by the National Safety Council are educative. The work of organizations with well-prepared altruistic programs should be given bulletin space, and their work should be reinforced by bringing to the attention of the pupils the resources of the library in the fields in which the various organizations are working. This will increase the apperceptive mass of the pupils.

For advertising the magazines which the library has to offer, the bulletin board is indispensable. A weekly type-written list of "What to Read in the Magazines" will serve as a reading guide to periodical literature. The monthly bulletin, "Ten Outstanding Magazine Articles," selected by a council of librarians, is both attractive and suitable for reading guidance. The "Magazines Arrived" indicator will also increase the use of magazines. This device calls the attention of pupils to the magazines immediately after they are received in the library, thus giving students opportu-

nity to secure the maximum of use from the periodicals received.

The paper covers of the new books make effective bulletin material, and serve to call the attention of the pupils to the new books as they come in. Short annotated book lists have a place in library advertising, but these should not be used too often, because constant repetition of book lists fails to attract the pupils' attention. Posting advertisements of books that the pupils themselves have made is an effective way of advertisement. Children are likely to accept the recommendation of another pupil when they might look askance at a book suggested by a grown-up.

There are various types of bulletin boards on the market. In many cases the stock bulletin boards will not fit the space to the best advantage, and therefore they must be ordered from special specifications. In many libraries where space is at a premium, there is insufficient space for a wall bulletin. In that case a floor pivot case with wings, or a single floor bulletin board must be used. The floor bulletin boards have only one advantage, and that is that they may be moved from place to place. The material of which the wall bulletin board is made should be porous cork linoleum, plain in color. The surface should allow the use of pins and thumb tacks for keeping in place the material that will be attached to the board.

Exhibiting the books themselves is one of the best ways of increasing voluntary reading. This device has the virtue of suggesting a want and supplying it immediately—two steps that are not possible with any other advertising device. Bright new books never fail to attract pupils. Even the new copies of old books gain new readers if they have gay exteriors. The circulation of nonfiction can be increased when there is a supply of new books to exhibit. This exhibit should be a regular recurring event whenever the book collection warrants. The book circulator is a

useful device for displaying a small collection of books, since it can be placed on desk or table. This is a small wooden shelf upon a wire easel which keeps it in a slanting position, with a space for a sign calling attention to the books displayed.

Book-display cases are of various kinds, from the small 12-inch rack for desk display to the five-shelf pedestal wall case. A most useful kind is the one-shelf floor case on a high pedestal with adequate bulletin space at the top. Two such cases can be arranged back to back, forming a double floor display. This type of case has the advantage of showing the books and advertising them simultaneously.

Interesting book comments and annotations are valuable in creating an interest in books. The annotations may be collected from many sources: From the librarian's personal reading, from the comments made by teachers, from book reports by the pupils, from the book reviews in *The Book-list*, *The Bookman*, and from other periodicals of literary standing. The reviews should be typed on 4 × 6 cards, and filed in a special filing box, labeled, "Suggestions for Reading." This device is extremely popular with the pupils, and helps greatly to increase voluntary reading.

Brief book reviews typed and pasted in the books themselves will increase interest in the particular book thus treated. The only drawback to this device is that pupils are likely to expect a book review to be pasted in every book, and will often pass over a good book because there is no review in it.

A browsing corner should be designed in the library for the indifferent pupils who have not yet acquired the reading habit; for the pupil who has been reading cheap serials, and who needs to be interested in other kinds of books; for the inarticulate pupils who cannot express their book needs; for the pupil who is temporarily idle, and who wishes to read to pass the time. The collection of books

shelved there should represent a wide range of reading interests and tastes. Books which do not interest the pupils should be taken from the shelves. Those chosen should answer the need of the pupils for whom the collection was assembled. Thus the browsing shelf serves the primary purpose of providing leisure reading for special types of pupils.

A show case for displaying miscellaneous things is an essential part of school-library equipment. The pupils in the school possess many objects which are of interest to other pupils in the school. These can be displayed in the library with the double purpose of creating interest in books and of bringing to the attention of pupils possible hobbies. Such collections as stamps, geological specimens, Indian curios, botanical specimens, radio sets, coins, all have display value. The librarian can also utilize the case for displaying illuminated manuscripts, old and rare maps, and artistic book bindings.

The school paper offers a good advertising medium for the library. A regular library column, if skillfully edited, brings immediate results. The material in the column should be varied, written in the best form of newspaper style, and should have news value. Short interesting book reviews; short lists of the new books received; brief chats on great personalities of history, literature, and science; excerpts from literature on timely subjects; short articles designed to stimulate interest in subjects talked about; material that shows the correlation of the library with other departments in the school; opinions on books, written by pupils in the school—all these items have a place in the library column.

Contests carried on by means of school-paper publicity are effective. A contest of famous sayings under the heading, "Who said it?", has been used with good effect. Questions asked and answered by pupils in the column of the

"Inquiring Reporter" may be of a literary character. A series of book questions will excite a good deal of interest in books. "Do you prefer a play which is true to life or one wholly romantic? Why?" is the kind of question asked. This device has special advertising value because pupils like to give their opinions and are thrilled to see their opinions and their names in print. They give a great deal of thought to their answers, and thus the device has the twofold virtue of stimulating them to thought and to an adequate expression of their thought.

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CHAPTER IX

TEACHING PUPILS TO USE BOOKS AND LIBRARIES

One of the direct educational responsibilities of the library is that of training pupils to use books and libraries. Such knowledge has become practically indispensable to the student in recent years, since practically no school course is offered which does not require the use of library material for its elucidation or amplification. It is therefore incumbent upon the student to learn not only what books to look for, but how to find them, and, once obtained, how to use them to the best advantage. The time has passed when people could read relatively few books, and consider themselves educated. The boundaries of human knowledge are forever increasing their limits, and the results of experiment and experience recorded in books are becoming increasingly more numerous. No longer is it possible for the home library to supply all the reading and research material which the student will need. He must have recourse to school and public library collections, and special libraries. To use these libraries and to get the maximum of pleasure and profit out of the wealth of books they contain, requires some specific knowledge of how books and libraries can be used to the best advantage. Such training does not come by accident; it must be acquired, just as any other knowledge or skill is acquired.

Educators early recognized the value of training pupils to use books and libraries, and were quick to see the advantage of such training in the ability it would give pupils to engage in intellectual pursuits and the help it would mean

to pupils in the carrying on of their school work. Although they were, on the whole, in favor of including the course in the school curriculum, conditions of a pressing and practical nature made the addition of the course sometimes well-nigh impossible. Some of these difficulties were:

1. The program of studies was already so overcrowded that no place could be found for the course.

2. It was not quite clear if it were scheduled, just what sort of course it ought to be.

3. The time to be given to the course presented difficulties.

4. Since the time given would be less than a semester, should credit be given? If given, how much? How to account for the credit on the school records?

5. Who was to give the course? Teacher? Librarian?

The handicaps which all new subjects must face in the school situation were in the case of the above-mentioned course exaggerated by the lack of any definite idea of how best to deal with the situation. It was not quite clear what a course on the use of books and libraries should contain, or at what level it should be given. Should the course be cumulative, that is, a portion of it be given during each of the four years of school? Or should the entire course be given to the freshmen, when they first enter high school? The matter of deciding who should teach the course presented difficulties not easily overcome. In many cases the librarian did not have enough training in educational methods to organize the course in conformance with the best teaching practice, or lacked sufficient teaching experience to present the subject in an interesting and logical manner. Then, too, she found it almost impossible to undertake the teaching in addition to her already heavy library duties. In cases where the librarian did not have an assistant, it was impossible for her to absent herself from the library during the time necessary for the teach-

ing, and to teach the class in the library room was not practical because during the time the room would be used as a classroom, pupils who wished to use the library would be deprived of its use. In many schools the English teacher undertook to give the course in books and libraries; but in a great majority of cases she did not have adequate technical preparation to give it successfully.

As is the case with any new subject taught, especially when in the experimental stage, there was no material that could be put into the hands of the pupils. Only a few outlines of what a course in the use of books and libraries might consist of were then available; but although useful to the librarian in organizing the course, they still left the skeleton of the plan to be amplified, and there was no material with which to do this. Of ready-made outlines that would fit conditions in particular situations, there were none at all. There were no standard lists of the kind of books, magazines, and visual material that the pupils could utilize for assimilation material. Hence the librarian had to plan and produce it herself. In doing this, she naturally worked out the organization of the course to meet the need in the particular school. This made the courses given in the various schools as unlike as they could be; and yet, being established for the same fundamental purpose, that is, to teach students to use books and libraries, they had the same general aims, even though their practice differed widely.

In a questionnaire sent to high-school libraries by the library committee of the National Education Association in 1917, in regard to the courses then given in the use of books and libraries, the following items seem to occupy first place in importance:

1. The total number of lessons given
2. The title of each lesson
3. The time given to each lesson

4. Practical details of scheduling the lessons in the school program of studies
5. Method of testing the pupils upon the instruction given
6. The balancing of theory and practice
7. The amount of formal practice given in the library
8. The amount of credit given
9. The method of giving credit on school records
10. Who does the actual teaching? The librarian? A teacher?

The answers to this questionnaire revealed a wide variety of practices for each item. The number of lessons given varied from none at all to fifteen, with an equal discrepancy in the time given to the lessons. In some schools the difficulties in scheduling lessons had been successfully surmounted; in others there seemed to be no way of making room for the course. Some schools had made the library credit a part of the English credit of the pupil, while in other schools none at all was given. In some cases, the librarian did the actual teaching, the supervision of the laboratory work, and the testing; while in other schools a teacher, usually in the English department, did the actual instruction, the librarian having oversight of the laboratory work done in the library.

Even up to the present time there is no standard library course in the use of books and libraries. The problems that the inclusion of the course has raised in the various schools have been settled in accordance with the conditions in the particular school. In some schools, a cumulative course is given; in others, a short course stressing the practical aspects of the subject; in some schools, a short orientation course is required of all freshmen entering the school; some schools offer a well-organized, richly conceived course which compares favorably with other courses in the school; while at the opposite extreme is the school that can find no place for the course in the school program. When no organized course is given, the librarian

usually tries to give individual instruction in the essential details to each pupil at such time as he shows the need for information on the use of the book or the library. Obviously, this is an uneconomical method of instruction.

In view of the great variation in prevailing conditions, any attempt to formulate and organize a course that would fit all the conditions enumerated above, would be difficult. The content of the course in any school will be conditioned by the amount of time that the pupils will spend on it. Hence it is important that from the possible units of instruction the librarian choose those that will best carry out the objectives she has in mind for the course she is to give. An examination of these units will give some idea of what that choice is most likely to be:

1. The socialized use of the library
2. Getting acquainted with the school library
3. The care of books
4. How to use a book
5. Use of the dictionary
6. Use of reference books
7. Special reference books
8. Books and reading
9. Book evaluation
10. Use of magazines and the magazine index
11. Classification of books as a process of sorting
12. The catalogue as an index to the library
13. The why of library rules
14. Library agencies in the community
15. The library as an adjunct to the classroom
16. How a bibliography is prepared
17. Note taking
18. Selection of books for the home library
19. Visual material and its use
20. What books can tell us about vocations
21. Books as friends
22. Books as helpers

The choice of the number and kinds of units of instruction to be included in the course will depend upon the following factors:

1. Whether the course is given to a group
2. Number of lessons to be given
3. Length of the class period
4. Time allotted for laboratory work
5. Possible motivation through other classroom work
6. What previous library experiences the pupils have had
7. Whether the course is designed to be immediately practical
8. Whether the course is to be cumulative

If the time for the course is short, the librarian will have to select those units that she considers essential. Care must be exercised lest the selection be too limited, for the result of such restriction is likely to be a course which, though immediately practical and adapted to the particular school, is lacking in that broad and generous content which will make the pupils intelligent users of other libraries. A course that is too barren will be of little use in creating attitudes and standards that will carry over into adult life in the forms of a discriminating reading taste and an instinct for research.

Just as the old truism commands that the garment must be cut according to the cloth that is available, so from the many objectives possible for the library course, the librarian must choose those that she can carry out in the time available for the course and under the conditions which prevail in the school. Making objectives is only another way of deciding what abilities in the pupils she is trying to develop. Her choice, then, will depend on the values she sees in these abilities.

OBJECTIVES FOR A HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARY COURSE

1. To create and increase the demand for library service.
2. To show the correlation of the library with the other departments of the school.

3. To enlarge the pupil's outlook on life through the handling of many books.
4. To give the pupils an opportunity to discover new interests through knowledge of many books.
5. To make the reading of books a leisure occupation.
6. To teach pupils the most economical way of using books.
7. To make pupils familiar with the library devices that make quick and accurate service possible.
8. To give pupils some standard of book evaluation.
9. To teach pupils to be self-reliant in using libraries.
10. To make pupils familiar with library tools that will help them in their class work.
11. To give pupils the social attitude in the use of the library.
12. To create a lasting interest in things intellectual.
13. To prepare pupils to be library users in adult life.
14. To show how the library material can serve both as a vocation and avocation.
15. To give pupils the ability to carry on research intelligently, to indicate how to compile a bibliography, how to find material and what to do with it once it is found.

It is not possible, under prevailing conditions, for the librarian to give an adequate treatment of the subject matter of the course on books and libraries, or to carry out all the possible objectives of the course in the time allotted to it. With the present development of the high-school library, and the contacts of the library with the teaching, social, and personnel work of the school, the course has possibilities of extension far beyond the mere consideration of the use of the library in any particular school. Now that it can be motivated and, through its ever increasing contacts with the other subjects in the school, has been made richer in the possibilities for laboratory work, the course in the use of books and libraries could, with great profit to the pupils, be offered as a full-semester subject.

Three types of pupils would probably take the course in

the use of books and libraries: (1) the pupils who had no special interest in the course but were taking it as one of the school subjects; (2) the pupil who would be a student assistant in the library; (3) the pupil who intended to make librarianship a profession. The great majority of the pupils would be of the first type. They would have no special interest in the course, but, since they would form the majority of the class, to get the attention and coöperation that are essential to real classroom spirit, the motivation would have to be of a kind that would appeal even to the indifferent. "Practical utility" is the most obvious as well as perhaps the most desired motive in the course. If pupils know how to use books and libraries, they will be able to react more efficiently to their classroom work. This is an essentially practical point of view and will be recognized by all members of the class as possessing immediate value. If the librarian gains the coöperation of other classroom teachers, it is possible to undertake in the library course actual projects in other subjects which the pupil is taking, and this will illustrate the use of the library in an actual classroom situation.

The approaches to pupil interest and activity may take various forms. The bibliographical approach can be utilized in many subjects. In one school the following bibliographical approach to the study of units in commercial geography was developed with the aid of the teacher of that subject. For instance, if the topic were cotton, the students in the class would adopt the following procedure:

First Step. The students go to the card catalogue in the library and make out a bibliography of the subject being studied. During the recitation the lists are collected and completed by comparison, one with another.

Second Step. Each student goes to the library and with the help of his bibliography makes an outline for the study of the subject, including the big headings or topics and what he thinks

are important subheadings. These outlines are put before the class, studied and criticized. Then the class works as a whole and compiles an outline to be followed in the study of the subject.

Third Step. Each student, reading from the outline and with the help of the bibliography, reads thirty minutes in the library each day and makes a brief outline of the subject matter read. These outlines are collected and carefully recorded. Concrete material and field trips are used to illustrate the discussions. Graphs, charts, and curves are made from statistics and the children are trained in the ability to find statistics. Maps are either copied or made from data given. Tests ten or twenty minutes long are given frequently. Reports from articles in current magazines are encouraged and each pupil keeps an envelope in which newspaper clippings are preserved.

Fourth Step. When the outline work has been completed, then the last recitation period is used in which to write a résumé of the work covered. For preparation the pupils may review plan and outline, organize the material or make any other preparation they may deem necessary. During the writing no helps of any kind are used. Each pupil may select any phase of the industry that appeals to him, or he may review the whole topic. Frequently in a class of twenty, seven or eight different treatments may be received. As a motive for this work we sometimes write exercises for use in the elementary school. Sometimes a compilation is made of the best papers and the whole is put in the library for the use of future classes.

Fifth Step. About the middle of the semester each student selects a topic for a term paper, choosing one that has not been studied in class. In preparing the term paper, the same general plan is followed: (1) making a bibliography; (2) making an outline; (3) reading and taking notes; (4) finding and making illustrations; (5) writing a résumé.

All of the work on the term paper is done outside of class, and furnishes the opportunity for independent and individual work.

This procedure gives the pupil a real problem to work on, one that will show results in another classroom. To the library course it gives that coöperation between the

library and other departments that is so valuable to both. The bibliographical approach is possible in all subjects. The pupils in the library course can be given the project of making book lists in connection with all subjects in the curriculum, the lists to be actually used in the classroom by the teacher in that subject. This bibliographical study will motivate the use of reference books and indexes, and will make the examination of a large number of books a natural part of the work of compiling a book list. Such projects will give the pupils the practice that they need in order to apply the theory that the librarian gives as the subject matter of the library course. Through practice with real problems, the effort of pupils in using books and libraries will no longer have the element of chance. As a rule, pupils who have not been well trained and who have not had sufficient practice, either happen to find material on the subject they are looking for, or, chance failing them, do without the material. If they are forced by classroom pressure to get the material, they are entirely dependent on the librarian for every book they use. Adequate instruction in the use of books and libraries followed by purposeful practice will make the pupil self-reliant in his use of the library and library material and will also make his success in the use of library facilities a matter of intelligence rather than of chance.

Certain units of library instruction offer opportunity for an historical approach. In taking up the unit of the book, interest may be obtained in the classroom discussion by taking up the development of the book and book-making. For example, the following topics—oral tradition; the pictograph; hieroglyphics; manuscript; papyrus, parchment; paper-making; movable type; the printing press; book-binding; the illustration of books—offer a means of arousing the interest of pupils which can be utilized in carrying out projects. These projects may be

done by the class as a whole, in which case each pupil volunteers to report on one of the topics, the oral or written reports forming a part of the classroom activity; or, pupils who have finished the minimum essentials in the unit may use the topics as subjects for individual voluntary projects to be done outside the classroom. When the topic of the place of the library in life is taken up by the librarian, the historical approach to the subject can be made by discussing the development of the great libraries from ancient to modern times. The procedure admits of the same treatment as that used in the historical study of the book. This project offers the opportunity of showing the continuity of culture, and the relation of tradition to modern life.

The personal interest approach to the course will make it possible for the librarian to give every member of the class an opportunity for self-activity, for although the instruction gives all the pupils the same essential information, skills and attitudes, for using books and libraries, the pupils should be given a chance to exercise their own creative talents, whether they be of the manual arts, science, or arts kind. The instruction can and should be fitted to the needs and desires of the individuals making up the class; for it is only by making conditions for pupil activity that will bring out their special interests, abilities and capacities, that the course will give the most value for the students.

A good device for getting pupils to tell what they would like to get out of the course is to put on the blackboard, or have distributed to every pupil in the form of a mimeographed sheet, a statement of wants, for example:

1. I want to know how to find facts in books.
2. I want to know how to use the index to magazines.
3. I want to know how to find books on the library shelves.
4. I want to know how to take notes.

5. I want to know how to use the library catalogue.
6. I want to know how to make a book list.
7. I want to know how to find bibliographies on different subjects.
8. I want to know an economical way of using textbooks.
9. I want to know what books I ought to read for pleasure.
10. I want to know the library rules.
11. I want to know how I can get a card for books at the public library.
12. I want to know how to get information on the special hobby I am interested in.
13. I want to know how I can get illustrations to use in connection with my classroom work.
14. I want to know how to find certain maps.
15. I want to know how I can use the knowledge of how to use books and libraries in my other classroom work.
16. I want to get an idea of what books I ought to read at home.
17. I want to know how to plan and organize my school work.
18. I want to know what books to buy for my home library.

Each pupil chooses from the wants stated above or from others suggested by the members of the class, those which he would most like to know. Each member of the class puts his choice upon a card with his name, and all the cards are placed in a small card file on the librarian's desk. When a pupil has learned how to do one of the things he has indicated on the card, he puts a completion check after it, and returns the card to the file, this process being continued until all the items on the card are checked off. This procedure is carried on by all members of the class. The value of the device is that it gives a motivation to every pupil in the class, and also indicates the activity to be carried on by each pupil. Obviously, as the course progresses, pupils find new wants. The scheme also gives the librarian definite data upon which to base her work with individual pupils, since the choice the pupils make will show whether their interests are limited, or broad, and

what they consider of special use to them in the course. This device offers interesting possibilities.

In planning the library course, due thought must be given to the modes of teaching which prevail in the particular school, and the course should be designed to follow the general practice as far as possible. But it is not wholly possible for the library course to conform to any set type of teaching, since it entails the use of the science type of teaching in the information about the use of books and libraries, the arts type of teaching in the appreciation of and experiences with books, and the manual arts type of teaching in the preparation of books for circulation and the mounting of pictures for the visual file. The librarian should also give some heed to modern educational principles in both theory and practice, and to the results of educational experiments that have to do with reading. Just as all other courses in the curriculum must constantly be reorganized in accordance with the new progressive tendencies in education, so must the units of instruction in the library course be revised from time to time in the light of new educational principles. For instance, in all the earlier library courses much of the time was spent on the unit concerned with the dictionary. In the cumulative courses, dictionary study was undertaken at every level, the time usually given to the study of the dictionary being longer than that given to any other unit. With the new educational theory of reading, in which getting the meaning of words from the context rather than searching for the definition in the dictionary is the goal, there is no longer any justification for putting so much emphasis on dictionary study in the library course.

Because of its miscellaneous nature, the library course lends itself well to the unitary organization. In fact, the course can scarcely be organized except in units. For each unit of instruction the librarian should set up minimum

essentials, made up of knowledge to be gained, attitudes to be developed, or skills. These minimum essentials must be definite, and must be capable of being measured in some form or other. The librarian must accept no other result at the completion of each unit of instruction than mastery of the unit involved. Of course, whether or not the unit has been mastered can be determined only from the evidence, which will vary for every type of learning. Tests furnish evidence in the science type of learning; voluntary projects undertaken by the pupil involving the material mastered furnish good evidence in the units which deal with the art or appreciation type of experience; and skill, accuracy, and dexterity in actually using the practical library devices are all evidences in the manual arts part of the library course. Since the library course is made up of all these types of learning, it is necessary for the librarian to vary her testing procedure to fit the unit.

No plan of teaching procedure can be looked upon as final. Methods have replaced methods, just as new educational theories have replaced old ones. Therefore, the librarian must always reorganize the course from time to time in order that she may take advantage of the new progressive methods worked out in experimental and laboratory schools and alter her procedure accordingly. Education is forever evolving new ideas and new technique. Hence, any tentative method of procedure for a course will have to be modified if not entirely reorganized from time to time in the light of new knowledge and new educational method. The following suggestion for a method of teaching the course in the use of books and libraries follows in the main the general technique of teaching which was formulated by Prof. H. C. Morrison¹ of the University of Chicago. The technique is especially well adapted to the

¹H. C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School* (The University of Chicago Press, 1926).

library course. Granted that the course has been organized into units of instruction, the teaching procedure will include the following steps:

1. *Pretesting.* This is an essential part of the technique for the high-school course in the use of books and libraries because it will reveal what library experiences the pupils have already had. Six kinds of library experience are possible in every high-school group: (1) pupils who have had no experience with a library; (2) pupils who have used the elementary-school library but have had no instruction in its use; (3) pupils who have been given a library course in the elementary school; (4) pupils who have used a junior high-school library; (5) pupils who have received instruction in the use of books and libraries while in the junior high school; (6) pupils who have had experience with the public library. Besides indicating the library experiences of the pupils, the pretest is designed to reveal just what the pupils know about the work to be taken up in the course. The results of the pretest will help the librarian to choose those units of instruction which will best fit the particular group.

2. *Preview or Overview of the Subject.* The preliminary view should give the librarian an opportunity to explain and motivate the course, point out the correlations with other classroom work, and indicate the possibilities for voluntary projects on the work and play levels. It should give to the students two things: (1) a clear idea of what the course is all about, and (2) a desire to know what it will offer them. No matter what the interests, abilities, or capacities of the pupil, the preview must be interesting enough to create in him the desire to engage in the activities which the course entails. It must offer a challenge to the curiosity of the pupil, which is strong enough to create in him an attitude of attention and a desire to undertake the work. It must have the quality of an intellectual adventure.

3. *The Presentation of the First Unit in the Course.* The presentation is in the nature of a preview of a single unit of instruction. In the presentation the essentials are stressed, and the attention of the pupils is focused on the mastery of essentials. The possibilities for the self-activity of the pupils are pointed out,

and methods of approaching and of mastering the unit are pointed out. The frontiers, as it were, of the unit are staked out.

4. *Assimilation.* A period of time is set aside in the classroom procedure in which the pupils by reading, by laboratory work, and by exploration can acquire the minimum essentials for the unit. It is a period of directed study in which the librarian can help the individual pupils in the class.

5. *Pupils Organize the Material in the Unit.* On the basis of their reading and their laboratory work, the pupils organize the material in a logical and orderly manner. If the unit involves a problem of gaining skill, problems of this kind are undertaken.

6. *Test on the Unit.* The test should be given to show if the pupil has mastered the unit. The test may be of the true-false, the completion, or the multiple-choice type. The old-fashioned essay type of test is not likely to give objective evidence of mastery. In some units, an oral talk by the pupil before the class fulfills the function of the test; in others, the doing of a piece of laboratory work in explanation of a principle taken up in the unit will fulfill the requirement. In the library course, it will be necessary to fit the tests to the unit, and because the units contain such varying elements, the tests will differ. But no matter what kind of test is used, it should be searching enough to show conclusively the evidence of mastery, or the failure to master.

7. *Reteaching for Those Pupils Who Have Not Given Evidence of Mastery.* The test on a unit gives evidence of mastery. Those pupils who have not mastered the unit must be retaught. Obviously, pupils either know the unit or they do not. The pupils who need reteaching must be given the opportunity to acquire the subject matter, or skill, or the attitude which will make for complete mastery before they go on to another unit. Needless to say, the better the teaching, the fewer the pupils who fail to gain mastery level.

There are very few books dealing with the units in the library course that can be used as assimilation material by the pupils. Compared with the other subjects in the curriculum, the library course has less background material than is available for any other subject. There is a real

need for books on the use of books and libraries written especially for pupils of high-school age. Until such books are available, the librarian must give the pupils the information for each unit in lecture form, and look to laboratory work and to voluntary projects to perfect their knowledge. Actually using the books and actually using the library must take the place of wide reading about either. The assimilation period is thus directly translated into pupil experience with the units. Active and purposeful activity must take up the assimilation period.

What the laboratory work will be will depend on the units of instruction chosen for the course, the amount of time allowed for the course, and the conditions under which the course is given. But no matter what the conditions, lacking the material for wide reading, the class must undertake some kind of laboratory work in connection with the course. The wide possibilities in laboratory work will be clear from the following suggestive list:

- Sorting catalogue cards
- Sorting book circulation
- Preparing clippings
- Making library posters
- Making a plan of the library
- Editing the newspaper in the library
- Choosing books for the browsing corner
- Getting ready books for special collections
- Taking care of the book collections in the various classrooms
- Making trips to publishing houses
- Examining books and magazines in bookstores
- Talking with authors about writing books
- Visiting a bindery
- Making book lists
- Making reading booklets
- Preparing new books for circulation
- Analyzing magazines for special purposes
- Reading books with a view to reporting on them

Preparing written reports of books to be pasted in the books with
a view to increasing voluntary reading
Putting books away on the shelves
Book mending
Making bibliographies
Classifying and cataloguing the home library
Giving book talks to advertise favorite books
Arranging a library program for assembly
Making a catalogue of personal reading
Choosing books for classroom libraries
Making a study of the illustrators of books
Formulating a student handbook on the use of the library

There are innumerable additional laboratory problems that can be undertaken in the library course. Some are valuable because they train pupils to be accurate and painstaking, as, for instance, filing and sorting. Others teach pupils the location of books in the library, for example, making a floor plan of the library, putting books away on the shelves. A wide acquaintance with books can be gained by the pupils from the visit to the local bookstore, from choosing books for the browsing corner in the library, and from making book lists. Training in book and magazine evaluation is the by-product of the analysis the pupils make of magazines and books. All the items in the possible laboratory work have some value in pupil training aside from the actual knowledge to be gained by the pupil. Some will give skill, some attitudes, and others standards. The laboratory work should be planned to reinforce the presentation of a unit to the extent that the pupils will be stimulated to undertake voluntary problems or projects and thus show evidence of having adapted the subject matter to their own understandings and needs.

The best evidence that the pupil has gained power in a subject, or real intellectual enjoyment from the study of a unit, is his voluntary desire to engage in the activity

when there is no classroom pressure. What the pupil will do in connection with the unit for the very interest or pleasure of engaging in the activity reveals better than anything else what the unit of instruction has meant to him. If the pupil translates what he has gained from the course into some activity that is worth while for him, he has made an adaptation of the material in the unit to his own use or pleasure. To illustrate: If, after completing the study of the unit on the catalogue as an index to the library, the pupil of his own volition undertakes to catalogue his own home library, that is evidence of adaptation. If, after the study of book lists, a pupil makes out a reading list for a member of his family, himself, or for a teacher on a certain topic the librarian may feel that he, too, has given evidence of adapting the instruction to his needs.

The course in the use of books and libraries is the direct contribution of the librarian to the organized education of the pupil. It is especially essential to his education not only because it gives him a body of facts and certain skills, but also because it prepares him to use his leisure worthily.

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CHAPTER X

THE LIBRARY IN THE SCHOOL COMMUNITY

The school community is made up of the administrative officers of the school, the teachers, the pupils, and the homes from which the pupils come. If the school library is to give the maximum of service to its users, it must first secure the good will and coöperation of the various elements of the community in which it is placed. For it is not an independent educational agency, but an integral part of the school system to which it belongs; and it is wholly dependent for its existence upon its ability to serve the school.

Before it can be of any real value, however, the library must first justify its existence in the minds of its users. Such justification may be brought about by making it impossible for the school to function properly without the services of the library, by adapting the library service to the needs of the particular school, and by creating for the library new fields of usefulness. The school library must be at once dynamic enough to respond immediately to demands for service, plastic enough to change a service once established, and progressive enough constantly to discover new possibilities for service. "Waiting for something to turn up" is a state of grace which school librarians can never hope to attain. They must *make* something "turn up."

It seems almost like uttering an unnecessary truism to say that for the successful conduct of the library, as of every other department in the school, the sympathy and coöperation of the principal is an all-important requisite.

Every one familiar with school organization knows that unless the principal is actively interested in the work of a department, it cannot progress, but will lag behind, and finally stagnate; while a department toward which the principal is favorably disposed will flourish like the familiar green bay tree of the Scriptures. In the case of the school library, however, the interest of the principal is even more important than for the various academic departments. For, even though the principal is not vitally interested in the problems, say, of the modern language or the science departments, he will be compelled by the desire of the students and by the requirements of the patrons and of the accrediting committees of the universities to see that those departments are at least kept up to standard. Little, if any, such compulsion exists, in the case of the library. There are few schools in which the library is not regarded as an "extra"—a very useful and pleasant extra, to be sure, but an extra none the less—rather than as a fixed part of the school organization. Hence, more often than not, the library finds that its first task in securing the aid and interest of the principal, and through him the coöperation of the faculty and student body, is to demonstrate to the principal the usefulness and importance of its services to every other part of the school system. This, of course, cannot be done in one day; it can only be the result of weeks and sometimes months of activity in the library. For it is mainly through seeing the library actually functioning usefully in the daily life of the student body that the principal will gain any great assurance of its importance in the school.

Then, too, until recently, school administrators, though trained in the theory and technique of the administration and supervision of the teaching and social activities of the school, have had, for the most part, no training, either of a theoretical or practical nature, in organizing and admin-

istering a school library. Even now, the major part of the instruction received by students in the theory and practice of education, is merely a stock of general ideas on the relation of the library to the school. Hence, aside from impressions obtained from personal observation or from the comments of users, the principal is largely dependent upon the librarian for correct knowledge as to the conditions that exist and the work that is done in his own school library. Part of such information can, of course, be given during conferences between principal and librarian, which should be frequent enough to insure complete understanding on the part of each, in regard to the policies of the library. But since it is impossible, in a conference, to give statistics, tables, and other similar important information in regard to the conduct of the library, the principal should, at stated periods, require a report from the librarian of the essential library activities carried on during that time.

To be effective, this report should be as brief as is consistent with the material, and should be arranged with reference to the relative importance of the items recorded. It should also take into consideration the fact that statistics are of little value unless they are interpreted; such interpretation should follow the statistical tables. Three kinds of material have a place in the librarian's report to the principal: (1) factual, (2) experiential, (3) supplementary.

Under factual material should be included such items as:

Library hours

Number of pupils using the library each hour of the school day

Ways in which the library is coöperating with other departments in the school

The number and kind of reserve collections

The number and kind of classroom libraries

Statistics of circulation

Comparative table of circulation

Comments on circulation

Statistics of books used in the library

Comparative table of books used in the library

Comments on books used in the library

Number and kind of reference questions

Number of new books received

The experiential part of the report may be made up of the following:

Objective evidence that the library has influenced the social life of the school

Library devices for increasing voluntary reading

Concrete ways in which the library has succeeded in developing the reading taste of pupils

Experiments carried on in the library

The development of new library contacts with the home

In the section devoted to supplementary statements may well come such items as:

Suggestions for extension of library service

Discussions of library policy

Suggestions for further coöperation

As a member of the school faculty, the librarian should regularly attend faculty meetings. This is necessary not only for the cultivation of her professional point of view, but because it is there that the educational policies and important routine matters of the school are discussed; and, if the library is to fit into the school, obviously the more the librarian knows about the school the better. Besides, attendance at faculty meetings gives the librarian a chance to get acquainted with the members of the faculty, and to correlate the activities of the library with those of the rest of the school.

A talk given by the librarian in faculty meeting is a good method of securing coöperation from the school com-

munity. In such a talk, she can tell in a direct manner her ideas of library service, what the library is actually doing, and what it hopes to do. But the talk, to bear fruit, must not only sketch ideals; it must give practical, workable ways in which those ideals can be carried out in concrete situations in that particular school. For all the glowing, abstract visions of future use of the library are futile unless definite, specific ways of present use are indicated.

Although the story of the Arab and the camel is not entirely applicable to the position of the school and the school library, like the camel, the school library must at times use strategy in order that it may get into the educational tent. The great body of teachers are familiar with the public library. But in their own high-school days there were few libraries in the schools; and therefore they have little first-hand knowledge of libraries in secondary schools. The methods of instruction with which they were familiar were of the textbook type, in which lessons were assigned from a single text, the class time was spent in questioning the pupils, and few supplementary books were required. The new methods of education make many books necessary in order that instruction may be properly carried on. Insistence by progressive educators on wide reading makes the library a necessary part of the teaching technique. This puts an added burden on the teacher, for the use of many books requires a different method of procedure in teaching. Teachers already overworked may feel that using many books, and making the necessary adaptation of their assignments to provide for use of the library is an added burden. Unless they can see that using the wealth of material and the service which the library has to offer will contribute directly to their teaching, they are indifferent to the school library. The approach then to creating and maintaining the interest of teachers in the school library must take the form of presenting ways in

which the library can help the teacher. At least in the initial stage the library must go more than halfway. But once the library habit is established in the teachers, they will themselves suggest ways in which the library can be used in their departments.

A notice sent to all the teachers, through the office, giving specific ways in which the library is prepared to help the teachers is effective. Such a notice might contain the following items:

THE LIBRARY WILL GLADLY UNDERTAKE THE FOLLOWING SERVICE:

Make lists on special topics.

Send clippings for the classroom bulletin board on the topic studied.

Send illustrated material.

Send a room collection of books. (The librarian will introduce the books to the pupils if the teacher so desires.)

Call the attention of the teacher to articles in current magazines.

Arrange for special reserve shelves for the class.

Gather material for oral talks, round tables, or written reports.

Supervise tests and make-up work in the library.

Call attention of the teacher to new books on her subject.

Have available for the use of the pupils material needed for lesson preparation.

Post lesson assignments in the library.

Arrange for a home-reading shelf in the library.

Arrange for a teachers' professional library.

Order books for special units of teaching material.

Include in the book orders books suggested by the teacher.

Coöperate in classroom projects.

Exhibit classroom projects in the library.

Important as is the attitude of the principal and the teachers in the school toward the library, that of the pupils is still more so, because the bulk of the library service is with them directly. Their attitude will be determined in

great measure by the attitude of principal and teachers. If the latter speak of the library service with appreciation and friendly enthusiasm, the pupils are quite likely to do likewise. On the other hand, should the reverse be true, the pupils will have a critical, fault-finding, dissatisfied attitude which makes work with them very difficult. That one library has realized the importance of such an attitude, is exemplified in the fact that the motto, "Let this be a place where friendliness and trust prevail," has a prominent place in the room. As in the case of principal and teachers, the only way the librarian can get the desired attitude on the part of the pupils is to justify the library to them. The library must give them personal service in a prompt and cheerful spirit. It must contribute to the pleasure or profit of the pupils, and must do so every time it is called upon for such service.

Among the devices found effective in calling the attention of the pupils to the library, and creating a desirable attitude on their part, are:

A library talk in assembly in which the speaker attempts to interest the pupils in the library as well as to give information. Concrete examples of the actual use of the library, rather than abstract discourse, should be aimed at.

Editing a regular library column in the school paper. The copy for this should be prepared with great care. Variety of subject matter, lightness of treatment, and a journalistic style of writing are essential to a successful column.

Coöperating with the social activities of the school. This may take the form of finding a play, and illustrations for costuming the play, for the Drama Club. A collection of pictures and slides for the meeting of the Science Club can be prepared by the librarian. The Stamp Club may have an exhibit of stamps in the library. Books of games for the use of school parties are always needed. Program material for class meetings, student assemblies, and for stunt days gives the librarian a variety of opportunities for service.

Debating and public speaking give the library a chance for useful coöperation. Having the material for debates all collected on a special shelf ready for instant use, and making out the subjects for public speaking contests are good ways in which the librarian can coöperate with such school activities.

Athletics seem to be far removed from the influence of library service, but in point of fact that is not the case. The posting of schedules for the athletic season will be useful to the whole school. Keeping athletes "up" in their studies by making special effort to find the material they need in getting their lessons, will be appreciated not only by the boys themselves, but also by the school. Special displays of books about sports and games will call to the attention of the students the resources of the library.

In all schools there are drives for special purposes, be it for the Red Cross, Boy Scouts, the settlement, to buy an organ, pictures, or what not. By suggesting posters for advertising the drive, and by giving poster room in the library, a valuable contact is made possible.

So varied are the contacts which the library can make with the pupils that it is impossible to name them all. One underlying principle needs to be stressed in this connection. The spirit in which the service is performed is as important as the service itself. The librarian needs to be genuinely interested in the pupils, to have an understanding sympathy with their point of view, and an innate desire to be of service. Children are quick to discern when this spirit of helpfulness is lacking. In the main, principal, teachers, and school librarian have one educational aim in common, and therefore have a common problem. Although the home is not an integral part of the school, it is an important part of the school environment. But in that the home is not actively engaged in carrying on the objectives of education in an organized way, its contributions to the educational program, although of the greatest value, are indirect. The school presents a highly organized undertaking carried on by specialists, the home an attempt to de-

velop attitudes and standards, but carried on for the most part by persons without special preparation for the work.

Since the individual pupil is the basis of educational instruction, and both the school and the home are vitally interested in the output, such organizations as the parent-teacher associations help to build up a unified educational program. In their work of bridging the gap and unifying the agencies that deal with the training of children, the parent-teacher associations have done much to bring about an understanding and a sympathetic relationship between the home and the school. The underlying purpose of such associations is to find out what the educational activities of the school mean and to coöperate with the school in carrying them out. In their meetings the time is taken up with discussions of the philosophy underlying education, and the methods of carrying these out in practice; with adolescent characteristics desirable and undesirable; and with the problems of the particular school concerned.

In a practical way, the parent-teacher associations help to make the physical equipment of the school what it should be. Since parents are voters, they are in a position to demand suitable school quarters for their children. It is their aim not only to make the conditions under which their children work as ideal as possible, but also to create school surroundings that are beautiful. Many schools owe their light, well-equipped classrooms, the attractive pictures, the nucleus of a library, the plant boxes filled with growing plants, the well-equipped gymnasium, well-furnished rest rooms, and the scientific equipment of the home economics department to the parent-teacher associations of the school. In some schools where a domestic science department could not be provided, the mothers of the school have even given the use of their homes as laboratories, and have themselves provided the instruction.

The program of the parent-teacher associations is usually given up to discussion of educational matters of general interest or of phases of education having special reference to the particular school. A library talk given before such a group is an effective way of getting home coöperation. The talk should be planned to entertain as well as instruct. With an audience made up of teachers and parents, the ideals and educational objectives of the library may well be stressed, and concrete ways in which the parents can coöperate should be indicated. All parents have the good and interest of their children at heart. If they are convinced that the school library has something to offer from which their children will profit, they will gladly do their share toward encouraging them to use the library. The one drawback to parent-teacher meetings is that all parents do not attend, and usually the parents who most need the help and inspiration which the meetings can give are never present.

Few parents have actual contacts with the school library. Hence "open night" in the school is an occasion designed to give them a chance to see certain kinds of school work carried on. Such "nights" are usually well attended because parents are interested in seeing the school in operation, especially when their own children are taking part in the activities. Provision is made for the athletic department to demonstrate the type of work they do; for the home economics department to display their laboratory work; for the art department to have an exhibit; for the manual training to show the shop in action; and for the music department to give a program. The school library, too, should take advantage of "open night." It should be open to visitors, and the situation there should be as typical of an ordinary school day as possible. Pupils in the school will gladly come to the library for recreational reading and for study, if they are requested to do so. A group of library

users assured, nothing else need be provided except what the library has to offer at all times.

At special times, especially during Children's Book Week and before Christmas, the school library may well have a special exhibit of books for the parents of the school. The invitation to see the exhibit may be sent home through the children, or it may be an item in the news letter sent out by the school. Many parents will take advantage of the opportunity of acquainting themselves with the books their children ought to read. A book talk given during the exhibit by the librarian not only increases the interest in the books, but also helps parents in selecting books for the home library. For the exhibit collection, new copies of books which the library owns may be supplemented by a loan collection from the local bookstore. The bookseller will gladly coöperate with the library because he is intensely interested in the undertaking, and also for a more practical reason, because the exhibit is likely to increase the sale of his books. Illustrated editions of books and books that are attractive should be chosen for the exhibit. Books of real literary merit should also be exhibited.

In some schools, at stated periods, a news letter is sent to the parents, its object being to bring all the agencies in the school environment into closer coöperation. This letter keeps parents informed of administrative measures, of teaching procedure, of extracurricular and social activities in the school, and of routine matters that are of vital and immediate interest to parents and teachers. In this news letter, library items should also be included. Here is offered one of the best opportunities for calling the attention of the parents to the new books received in the library, to exhibits, to new types of library service, and to suggestions for reading guidance.

One of the most effective devices in getting coöperation is a letter to parents. Since most of a child's leisure read-

ing is done at home, the attitude of the parents toward reading as a leisure occupation is of utmost importance. In order that the appeal for coöperation with the library in the formation of the reading habit and the development of reading taste be effective, some thought must be given to the community of which the school is a part. If the patrons of the school are largely from the industrial class, the letter sent to the parents must motivate reading, and should stress the usefulness of wide reading aside from its pleasure-giving quality. Such a letter as the following will appeal to parents with industrial and commercial ambitions for their children:

TO THE PARENTS OF SCHOOL:

Do you realize that reading is an important part of growing up? Your child should spend a part of his spare time in reading if he is to be successful when he goes to work.

Through books he may find out about the world, its industries and its people. By giving him this information, books will help your child select the kind of work for which he is most fitted, and will prepare him for doing that work more intelligently. This means higher pay, and more happiness for him when he becomes self-supporting.

Not only will reading make him a better breadwinner, but it will also give him a wholesome way of spending his leisure time. The reading habit once established makes for pleasure as well as for profit.

We ask your help in encouraging your children to spend their spare time in reading in the school and in the public library. Leisure time at home can be profitably spent in reading.

In communities in which the parents come from many walks of life, the appeal must be more general. Where there is no general vocational and industrial interest, and where parents have had varying degrees of educational opportunities, the following letter may serve:

TO THE PARENTS OF SCHOOL:

The purpose of this letter is to enlist your interest and coöperation in encouraging and guiding the reading of your children.

As you know, books probably have more influence on character than any one other thing. Is your child reading books that will make for clean, strong adult character? Are the books he is reading giving him command of good forceful English? Are they satisfying a normal intellectual curiosity?

In our appreciation of your interest in the reading of your children we wish to call attention to the wide opportunities offered by the school library not only as a reference library but in the wide selection of books for home reading. There are many books of fiction suited to the social maturity of your child which he should read during his leisure time. There are books of travel, poetry, drama, history, science, which will not only serve for pleasure reading, but will help him with his school work.

To supplement the books in the school library, your child should have a library card from the public library. This will give him access to the larger collection of books which the public library makes available.

There are school populations made up of parents who have had exceptional educational advantages themselves, and who wish to pass these on to their children. Such parents not only coöperate actively with the library, but will themselves initiate reading projects for their children. In such a situation there is a sharing of responsibility for the reading done by the children. Where the parents wish to help in reading guidance, discussing with them the problem of reading will give a common basis of procedure. In order that pupils shall read widely and still read books of acceptable quality, standards must be formulated. To call the attention of parents to such matters was the purpose of the following letter.

TO THE PARENTS OF SCHOOL:

YOUR CHILD'S LITERARY TASTE

To the magazine reader the following advertising slogans are familiar: "The best gift of all—a worth-while book." "A good book is a true friend." "Where are the children going—into lives of joy, service, poise, self-control, high purpose, effectiveness, and patriotism?" Each of these has to do with books, and each wishes to secure customers among parents who think. May the library borrow these slogans to attract your attention to your child's reading?

Just what is he reading? What kind of reading taste is he forming? Do his books increase his power to think, or is he becoming mentally lazy? Does he read whole series of books no one of which is harmful, but a surfeit of which makes good solid reading a task rather than a recreation? The need of the last question will be evident to those of you who were child victims of the twenty-eight volumes of the Elsie series or the many volumes of Oliver Optic, and to those of you who have watched your children devour Alger, and the Tarzan books. It is impossible to list objectionable books, since to suggest those not suitable for the varied stages of the child's development would make too long a list. Furthermore, we feel that such a list is unnecessary, for we have confidence that you know books well enough to be able to direct your child's reading.

For those who desire a general standard of measurement, we would suggest the application of a criticism on present-day manuscripts which the editor of the *Century Magazine* makes: "Since the faults are a direct reflection of the minds of the writers, they may be labeled as indicating 'thin-mindedness,' 'sloppy-mindedness,' and 'wobbly-mindedness.' By 'thin-mindedness' we mean a lack of background in life and education to give perspective to the story; by 'sloppy-mindedness,' indifference to the actual technique of writing, and ignorance of the fundamental requirements of form; and by 'wobbly-mindedness,' the lack of any richly conceived attitude toward life that gives a sense of selection and valuation of the basic materials from which stories are written." If you use some such standard as a basis of judgment, your chil-

dren will read books of vital human import, books that clarify life, books that are reasonably true to the human comedy. Will you help us to bring about such reading? ¹

The letters here given are in no way suitable for any and all situations, but are rather offered as suggestions. Letters written to parents must, in order to be effective, fit the particular community, the particular conditions in the school, and the state of development of the school library.

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¹Letter sent to the parents of the University of Chicago High School.

CHAPTER XI

THE LIBRARY IN RELATION TO MODES OF TEACHING

The true teacher is both an "artist and an artisan," the effectiveness of her teaching being determined, in large measure, by the relative proportions of each of these elements in her make-up. Routine, method, and purpose must of necessity be the result of conscious effort on the part of any teacher, but the manner in which the material is presented, the number and originality of the devices used to arouse the interest of the pupils and spur them on to self-expression will depend altogether upon the inventiveness and spontaneity of the individual teacher. In education as well as in other arts and sciences of life, methods follow certain general rules, which are formulated on the basis of long experience and practice. Certain modes of classroom procedure, it has been found, ordinarily give certain stated results; and these practices have gradually been gathered together and given form as the approved rules for methods of teaching. But since the personality and artistry of the teacher and the individuality of the pupils play such an important part in the learning process, formulated modes and methods of teaching cannot be looked upon as an exact science. Given the same subject matter and the same method of teaching, no two teachers will utilize them in exactly the same way, nor will the results of that teaching be identical. Each and every teacher transforms the subject matter into live, dynamic material through the medium of her own personality.

Methods of teaching have now been classified according

to certain broad general divisions; there are different modes of procedure for almost every classroom situation. Classifying presupposes the placing of definite limits; but, in reality, there can be no limit in modes of teaching, for the classroom situation is a complex one in which the variables of teacher and pupils are still further complicated by the opportunity for the exercise of personal preference in the organization of subject matter. Teaching rarely conforms in more than an approximate form to any one mode of instruction. At times the teaching technique will go beyond the limits of any one mode. The skillful teacher will find it important to vary her method or perhaps to combine more than one method, if for no other reason than for the very practical one, that she must have variety in her teaching, in order to guard against the deadly monotony which results from the use of the same method of procedure day after day.

The modes of teaching in vogue in the school, the subject matter taught, and the distribution of emphasis on various points have an important effect on the library as a reading and study room and as the source of material for the classroom assignment. The school library, too, is sensitive to every detail of classroom procedure. Any suggestion of outside activity, any stimulation of pupil interest which occurs in the classroom results in a call upon the library for service of some kind. An approaching test, floor talk, debate, or examination is evident immediately to the librarian by the demands made by pupils in the library. In a way, the school library is the barometer of the school. Is the teacher inefficient and unprepared for her work? The librarian will sense it from the uninterested attitude of the pupils toward the assignments of that teacher, and the hazy, vague ideas they express regarding their work. Is the teacher indifferent? The pupils reflect her attitude in the corresponding lack of purpose which they exhibit

in preparing their lesson assignments. Is the teacher well prepared, and dynamic in her personality? The pupils will give proof of it by their alert and interested attitude in the preparation of their lessons, and also by initiating, of their own accord, activities which apply the subject matter gained in the classroom to life outside of the school. The pupils will show evidence of the learning product.

Modes or ways of teaching affect the lesson assignment, the amount and kind of work required of the pupil, the amount of pupil self-activity, and the resulting stimulation of the pupil toward both directed and independent research. They also affect the attitudes and reactions of pupils towards reading as a leisure occupation. The more pupil activity there is in the classroom, the more demand will there be for library service of the research kind. The more vital and far-reaching the stimulation of interest in the classroom, the greater is the possibility that the librarian will be able to establish in the minds of the pupils a genuine interest in reading as a means of satisfying intellectual curiosity and of broadening the outlook on life. Once the pupil has gained such an attitude it is only a short step to the formation of a regular reading habit.

No single book can furnish the quality and quantity of material which the present state of our knowledge of any subject requires. Textbooks are useful. They organize the subject matter in a logical way, and serve as an outline of the steps in the progression of subject matter. In a manner, the textbook is to the possible subject matter as the skeleton is to the whole human body. They are both a framework, and both need additional covering to make them vital and living. Textbooks are a valuable adjunct to teaching, but used exclusively without the supplementary aid of a large collection of books for reference and general information, they result in a barren, narrow, and uninteresting body of facts which offer little opportunity

for the suggestion of original ideas or the inception of new and independent activities on the part of the pupils.

The mode of teaching and the relative place of the textbook in the teaching will determine what place the school library has in the school. Where the teaching does not aim at self-activity on the part of the pupils; where the subject matter taught may all be found between the covers of a textbook and does not need enrichment; where the teaching does not attempt to create favorable attitudes and standards for leisure reading, it will not be felt that the school library is really necessary to the progress of the school. But in any school in which any one or more of the above conditions are regarded as a desirable goal of teaching, the school library will be found a necessity.

In every school, the library performs the kind of service that the classroom requires. Therefore the schools that do not come up to the standards of modern instruction will have no library at all, or will have a library in keeping with their actual teaching practice. The school library must adapt itself to the school in which it is located, and will therefore be impotent or dynamic, depending on the school. Under favorable conditions in the school, the library can become a valuable adjunct to the teaching in every classroom, and is thus enabled to make many contributions to progressive education.

It is rarely that any mode of teaching is used in its simplest form. Although different schools may favor certain particular methods, the complexity of the school situation makes it impossible for any school to follow any one mode exclusively. An examination of the outstanding features of the most prevalent modes of teaching, together with the effect of that mode upon the school library, will be helpful as a means of demonstrating the relation between the school library and methods of teaching in general.

The recitation mode of instruction is perhaps the one that has had the widest use. In its most restricted form, it presupposes certain pages in a textbook which the pupil is to learn either in the study hall or at home. The classroom period is utilized by the teacher in questioning the pupils on the material in the pages assigned. No attempt is made to link the material with what has gone on before, or to prepare the child's mind for what is to follow. The learning process goes on from the unknown to the unknown. The result of this procedure is that facts, facts, and more facts are memorized oftentimes without the establishment of any relationship between them. The classroom exercise is merely the hearing of lessons and the test of the diligence of pupils in lesson preparation. In such teaching, the textbook is the source of all information and inspiration. There is no challenge to the curiosity which is inborn in every child, no appeal to his creative instincts, and no awakening of his intellectual interests. The test of the child's ability, under this system, is merely a test of his skill in memorizing and retaining material long enough to recite, and with successful cramming to pass the final examination. This process does give pupils a body of facts, but they are not organized into a form in which they can be used in future situations. When such a method is used in teaching, the school library has no direct contact with the classroom teaching activities, unless perhaps it might be to provide a dictionary. Since the teacher would not feel the need of library material to supplement the lesson material, and the pupils would not be stimulated to want to enlarge their knowledge of the subject from sources other than their textbooks, the school-library service would not be in enough demand to warrant its existence in the school.

Needless to say, the recitation method in this extreme form exists in very few schools at the present time. In

most schools where the recitation is an important part of the classroom procedure, it is modified in an intelligent manner. The teacher takes time from the actual questioning of the pupils to relate the new subject matter to the old. In making assignments, too, the new material is explained and interest aroused, by comparison with, and reference to, the material just considered. The teacher supplies some information which the textbook fails to give, out of her own knowledge and experience, and enriches the subject matter by material from other sources. In this way, although memorization of facts is still the goal, there is an attempt to relate one set of facts to others.

As a step in advance of the simple recitation mode, the teacher uses part of the recitation period for developing the lesson by a more informal discussion than is possible under the question-and-answer system. In this type of procedure, thought and reasoning are stressed in relating one fact to others. In order that pupils may see clearly cause and effect, and in order that the relationships be clothed with significant details, the teacher gives to pupils an additional amount of material not found in the textbook. This method necessitates the use of many books besides the textbook. For that purpose, many schools provide sets of supplementary readers or textbooks for classroom use. This supplementary material, however, is not altogether adequate, for it does not provide a sufficient range of material. Textbooks on the same subject have much the same kind and extent of material. Thus, providing supplementary material in the form of additional textbooks is only duplicating to a greater degree the material in the textbook which the pupil is already using in connection with the course. A school library is needed in carrying on this development type of recitation, to supply reference books by means of which teachers and pupils can check up on the accuracy of the statements made in the

class, to provide material from various sources which will enrich the subject matter, and to aid the pupil in pursuing various lines of investigation which the material presented in the class suggests to him. Such interest on the part of the pupil often results in his making decided contributions to the development of the lesson in the classroom. From this wide reading, the pupil can give comparisons, illustrations, and analogies, which will be pertinent to the class discussion and will arouse greater interest on the part of the pupils, in the subject under discussion.

In the topical recitation there is still more opportunity for pupil self-activity. The question that calls for mere exercise of memory is not used except to test the extent to which the pupils have prepared their lessons. No longer does the teacher follow the textbook slavishly. She exercises the principle of selection in the presentation of subject matter, and relies upon the textbook merely as a guide for factual progress. The classroom time is taken up by a variety of activities, in which the significant elements in the subject matter are stressed. These significant elements are brought out by means of a topical outline. The pupil is expected to find material on one of the topics, organize his findings, and present them to the class either orally or in written form.

Although, in this mode of teaching, the teacher initiates the activity of the pupil and directs his efforts, the pupil himself has a much greater chance for interest and activity than is possible in the purely recitation mode. This topical method of instruction cannot be carried on unless the class has access to the resources of a library. Teachers would get no results from their assignments if there were no provision for material. For, in a small way at least, a topic is a unit of specialized information. Even a very limited topic needs material from many books. And not only is it necessary that a collection of books be available, but

it is also essential that the librarian direct the pupil in his research on a topic if he is to derive any benefit from the material, and if he is to bring to his classroom anything that will have significance for the subject under discussion. The librarian must intensify the child's interest in the topic which the teacher has assigned, and direct the activity initiated in the classroom. By so doing, she becomes a laboratory teacher in her own right.

The aim of the socialized recitation is to get away from the formalism of the question-and-answer recitation. The stress of the question-answer type was on teacher activity. In the socialized recitation, the teacher is in the background, and the classroom procedure is largely carried on by the pupils under teacher guidance. The pupils are responsible for the effective learning of a body of material and for making the class hour interesting. Thus they have a social problem in the recitation. They study or recite because their fellow pupils in the class expect them to contribute something to the class hour. In some schools, it is the practice to have a student chairman chosen by the class, whose duty it is to preside during the class hour, direct the activities in the classroom, and assign the lessons. It is usually found that class opinion is sufficient motivation to influence pupils to do their work and to behave in an acceptable manner. For the socialized recitation, the formal classroom arrangement of seats all in a row is changed for movable chairs which can be arranged in a circle, or in any manner desired. An informal attitude and a situation without strain are the requisites for the social recitation. The pupil must be at ease. The friendly spirit of coöperation that results from the skillful carrying on of the classroom teaching helps to create pupil self-activity and interest. Pupil committees are often appointed by the pupil chairman or by the teacher to bring to the class interesting data on the subject matter studied by the

class. The socialized recitation offers opportunity for many varieties of procedure. The skillful teacher gets a very superior type of work from the use of this method. But only the teacher with a dynamic personality can make it a success.

The school library is essential to the social recitation, for, obviously, the covers of a textbook will not provide sufficient material to make the class period interesting and varied. Pupils take a pride in bringing to the class some added material which illustrates the subject matter, or which makes a practical application of the subject matter. The spontaneous interest which the whole social situation arouses in the pupils must find some outlet in physical or mental activity. Without the services of a school library, the students would be prevented from finding the many illustrations and comparisons and the large amount of additional information which is necessary to the proper explanation of any subject. Given a library and some helpful direction, the child will browse around until he finds pictures and anecdotes bearing upon his assignment, will delve into unknown books in the hope of finding information, and will often in this way be led to the pursuit of hitherto unsuspected fields of knowledge.

There is a difference of opinion among educators about the differences between problems and projects. There is much hair-splitting over definitions. It is not quite clear what constitutes a problem, nor is it certain when a problem ceases to be a problem and becomes a project. The difference between problem and project seems to consist chiefly in the emphasis which the project technique places on a natural situation, and the insistence that the steps lead to completion. What makes a situation natural in the classroom environment is a question that is open to a variety of interpretations. That adds to the uncertainty in applying the definition. As a general distinction, it

might be said that the problem concerns itself with intellectual material, while the project presupposes some activity of the manual or practical application order. But even this distinction will not hold good in all cases.

Although a project presupposes the completion of a piece of work in its natural setting and under natural conditions, the purely intellectual problem may have all the earmarks of a project. A pupil engaged in preparing a history assignment on the French Revolution finds a challenge to his interest in the Reign of Terror. Why did it take place? What caused it? Should he be content with the meager material in his textbook, or should he follow up his interest? He decides to do the latter, and with this purpose in mind goes to the school library for additional material. In his work in the library, he finds a wealth of material on the subject in books, illustrated material, and historical fiction. He continues his reading on the causes of the Reign of Terror long after the class has passed on to other phases of history. The effect of this reading on his actual classroom work has been to increase both his knowledge of and interest in history. The problem, which was to get further material on the causes of the Reign of Terror, originated in a classroom situation, and the steps which the pupil took in carrying on the problem took place in the school library. But this intellectual problem, when examined, exhibits all the conditions of a project. The pupil in following his original interest in the project gathered information from various sources, and, in the gathering of the material, angles of the problem which he did not have in mind originally were added. From the mass of material, he had to choose and evaluate those parts of it suitable for his purpose and had to organize it. In the research work which he did in the school library he attacked the problem in the identical way in which he would have done the work had he used the public library, and also in the identical

way in which he would later react to intellectual problems in adult life. The use of the school library is thus in a way a project in itself. Pupils can find in the school library the natural situation for both problems and projects.

Both problems and projects vary in complexity. Obviously, it is best to start with the simple and concrete. Provision should be made to supplement the pupil's experience with direct contact with natural situations whenever possible. Observation of industries, examination of processes, and participation in activities in natural situations all increase pupil experiences. A field trip, actual work on the family automobile, actual work in the school library, have the possibilities of both observation and participation.

Certain subjects in the curriculum lend themselves better to projects than do others. Such subjects as agriculture, mechanical arts, and household arts offer a wealth of projects in a natural setting. Pupils can grow vegetables in the school garden with a situation very similar to that in their home garden. It is possible to construct objects in the woodworking shops under conditions that do not vary greatly from those of the basement workshop at home. It is possible to cook a meal or make a dress in the home economics department in school with approximately the same conditions that prevail in the home. But even in these most natural of projects, the pupil needs some information in addition to what he receives through class instruction. He will have to read books, in order to find additional suggestions or to learn further steps in his project. Some details, too, may need to be checked up. The school library is, therefore, indispensable to the proper completion of most natural projects.

The classroom project is one in which the conditions are as natural as possible in the classroom situation. Most informational projects are of this type. Tracing the de-

velopment of the short story is an example of the project of the intellectual type. Since the motivation for the problem is present, the problem is purposeful, and the school library can supply the means and methods of research, all the steps necessary to the completion of the project are present. It is not too much to expect that the project cited is one that might interest any intelligent reader. Therefore the project is reasonable. Furthermore, it is to be expected that interest in the project would result in searching for information in a library. Up to this point the situation is natural. It needs only some form of purposeful completion to make it in all respects a project. In the schoolroom situation, an oral talk given to the class on the development of the short story, designed to create enthusiasm for the subject, would call for that organization and preparation that is the final act necessary to complete the project. This, too, might be the outcome in a natural situation in adult life, except that the talk, in that case, might be given before a club.

The possibilities inherent in the project method are endless. Material collected on a subject can be organized and utilized in a talk, the purpose of which is to arouse the interest of the other students in the problem on which the pupil has been working. Or, depending on the subject matter of the project, the results may take the form of maps, graphs, original writing, painting, drawing, musical scores, or whatever gives opportunity for the pupil to express himself best in the manner he chooses. Is he motor-minded? His project will result in something that is his handiwork. Is he word-minded? His project will probably be some form of literary exercise. Projects show the personal bent of the pupil, his creative skills and talents.

Appreciation is only in a limited sense a rational process. *Æ*sthetic experiences have their roots deep down in the instincts, sensations, emotions, and feelings. The reactions

which an individual feels when in contact with beauty, be it of nature or of art, is a personal response in which there is much that he can neither analyze in his own mind, nor express in words to others. Any attempt to express appreciation is as a rule vague and almost meaningless. One cannot seem to find the right words in one's vocabulary to fit the situation. That may account for the fact that most people are inarticulate when they try to give expression to their æsthetic feelings. It may also explain the very unsatisfactory work of many literature and art critics; for the adjectives which they use are vague generalizations that express little that is accurate or even tangible.

To all rational beings two and two make four; but to no two beings looking at a sunset will that experience give exactly the same feeling, nor would they express it in the same way, if it were the same. Both nature and art have illusive qualities which are translated by each and every individual into thoughts and feelings which are reflections of his own personality. It is therefore impossible to teach appreciation directly. The best that can be done is to enlarge the interests of the pupil, to increase his experiences, and to give the standards which will leaven the mass of his emotions and feelings, increase the extent of his ability to enjoy, and teach him some measure of discrimination. Such teaching should be designed to enlarge the apprehensive mass of the pupil, and to enrich his experiences, by giving him actual contact with literature and the arts.

A school library is a necessity for the appreciation type of teaching. As its contribution to this method of teaching, the library puts at the pupil's disposal a large and widely varied group of books, placed in a pleasant, quiet room, which invites leisurely, appreciative browsing, and presided over by a librarian who knows and loves books herself, and is capable, therefore, of guiding the child in his excursions into new literary fields. The very fact that the

pupil receives no credit for the "appreciation reading" done in the library aids in developing his æsthetic enjoyment. Knowing that he must read so many pages of a book before the next class period, or so many novels before the date of the next reporting time or examination, the child literally gallops through the books, acquiring nothing but the outline of the story and, perhaps, the names of the important characters. But nothing does he learn of the author's style, his favorite tricks of expression, the beautiful phrases scattered throughout the book or anything else except the mere "story" side. And it is safe to say that two weeks after the child has read a book in this manner he will have only a vague memory of even the outline of the plot. If, however, he comes into the library to read simply because he wishes to do so, he will be able to dip now into this book, or now into that, until, finding one that interests him, he will settle down to devour the book in a thoroughly interested manner. And who will question which method will reap the best results, in so far as knowledge and appreciation of the book he reads are concerned?

In the library the child has an opportunity to give expression to opinions regarding his reading which he is loath to suggest in the classroom. Many times he feels that unless he agrees with the teacher, or with traditional opinion, about the book under discussion, he will receive a low grade. Then, too, the adolescent child is very reluctant to reveal his inner emotions to the casual gaze of onlookers. Even though he is deeply stirred by what he has read, he will admit the fact in class with great diffidence, for fear of being made fun of by his classmates. The library, of course, has the advantage over the classroom, of giving the child a place in which he can discuss the book he is reading with a sympathetic and interested listener, who is not trying to gauge his knowledge of the book in order to give him a grade, and who, because she is talking to him alone, in-

stead of in a group, will be more likely to get from him a truthful and complete discussion of his reactions.

If there is a close coöperation between the classroom and the school library, the teacher of appreciation subjects can utilize the library as an informal aid to classroom procedure. Standards of judgment and knowledge of the universal elements in life and literature can be taught in the classroom. But this knowledge, to be useful, must be reinforced by actual practice in approving or rejecting books according to these standards. In the classroom, for example, the child learns what elements in a book make it good, and what ones make it undesirable; but these criteria of judgment will do little for him unless he actually has the opportunity of choosing for himself from a wide collection of books. In the school library, the book collection is free, as far as possible, from anything that is cheap. Of course, not all the books in the library are of the same worth; that would not be possible, or even advisable, for the students need books of different literary merit at different moments, and the school library must stand ready to supply all the demands made on it by the pupils at all times. But even with this limitation, the books in the school library all conform to certain standards of taste. Hence, within limits, the school library furnishes the material for choice, and the practice in choosing, which the pupils must have in order to be able to apply the standards learned in the classes taught by the appreciation method.

It should be self-evident that appreciation of literature, particularly, cannot be taught without an adequate supply of books. For it is only through contact with, and knowledge of, a large number of books, that pupils will learn to enjoy and appreciate literature. Wide range of choice is one thing that must be insisted on in any library, for the successful teaching of literary appreciation; for, since the subjective feeling that we call appreciation is an individual

matter and depends on individual taste, no one book can appeal to all pupils. Hence, to expect a small collection to serve as material for a large group of pupils is to lessen the possibility that every pupil will come into contact with the book he needs for his special mood or experience.

The laboratory method is an extension of the laboratory technique used in science to subjects other than science, with the necessary adaptation of the technique to the subject matter taught. Thus the method is very different in English than in the sciences. But one thing all subjects have in common, no matter how different the adaptation may be, and that is, they all have laboratory material with which to carry on their work. In the English department, the laboratory material will be books and illustrated material; in the history department, books, maps and illustrated material; in the art department, objects of art, reproductions of art objects, materials for producing art objects, and books giving information on various phases of art; the physics and chemistry departments will have specialized laboratories and equipment for experiment, and books of information on the special subjects; in the manual arts courses there will be the special shop machinery and material for wood or metal work, and, in addition, a variety of books giving information about the processes and applications of the manual arts. The laboratory method carried out to its logical conclusion presupposes that each and every classroom, no matter what the subject content, will be a unit of instruction, research and study. Every step in the learning process is a classroom activity under the direction of the teacher.

The material of instruction is arranged into large blocks of subject matter. Each of the units is vital in the understanding and mastery of the subject matter as a whole. Teaching procedure follows the logical manner of telling, reading, and reproduction. The telling by the teacher is

in the nature of a presentation or preview of the unit to be covered. The preview has six definite purposes: (1) to show the possibilities in the unit; (2) to interest the pupils in the unit; (3) to show the relation of the unit to what has gone before; (4) to point out the salient points in the unit; (5) to motivate the unit for the pupils; (6) to stimulate the self-activity of the pupils. The reading or assimilation period is designed to furnish ideal conditions of study under the supervision of the teacher. The ultimate aim of such study is to result in the mastery of the unit of instruction. During the reading or assimilation period, the teacher is on hand to clear up the points which are not clear to the pupil, to guide and direct the research work undertaken by the pupil, and to otherwise keep the interest alive. The efforts of the teacher during the assimilation period are centered on the individual pupil. Each pupil works individually toward a mastery of the subject. At the end of each unit of instruction, he must give evidence, by means of written tests, oral tests, talks, and extempore organization of the material in the unit, that he has mastered the material studied. Should these modes of testing show that the pupil has not mastered the minimum essentials of the unit, the pupil is retaught by the teacher, goes through the process of assimilation again, and is tested again for mastery.

While the slower pupils are taking additional time to master the unit, the pupils who have completed it are working on voluntary projects which their exploration of the unit has suggested to them. The laboratory method presupposes that each pupil will work up to his own capacity. The stress is laid on gaining of power and mastery of subject matter rather than on the accumulation of a body of facts. The progress of every pupil is judged not in terms of other pupils, but in terms of what he himself has accomplished, in relation to his own potentialities. This is the

special advantage of the laboratory method: namely, that it is based on a consideration of individual differences and capacities.

It is obvious that the laboratory method is possible only in schools that have an adequate supply of books and visual material. For certain courses in the school such as English and the social sciences, books are the primary laboratory material. For other courses such as physics and chemistry, books are the secondary source of material. For all courses books are a part of the laboratory equipment. Books are also essential for the voluntary projects which the pupils undertake in connection with all subjects, and to satisfy the curiosity that the classroom generates.

Under the laboratory method of teaching, the school library becomes a central library, with a branch library in every classroom in the school. The tendency in the schools in which the laboratory method is carried out fully, is to order books for the classroom libraries rather than build up the general library collection, thus creating a handicap for the library at a time when the school needs the potential service of the library most. Having widely scattered collections of books has a very distinct bearing on the kind and number of books that the school will need. In order that each classroom may have an adequate supply of books for its individual use, it will be necessary to buy many duplicates. The number of books required will, of course, be limited only by the school's financial ability to furnish them. Classroom libraries are likely to be uneconomical. In schools where the teaching force is constantly changing, many books which are ordered by a departing teacher will not be the ones her successor will want to use. Thus additional material must be provided for each new teacher, while much material that the school possesses is dead and useless. The loss to the school in lost and mutilated copies of books placed in the classroom is considerable. Granting

that she has time—which she usually has not—the teacher is neither trained nor especially interested in the care and administration of a library even on a small scale. Nor are there in the classroom situation the conditions that make the accurate charging and discharging of books possible. The teacher does not have the machinery perfected which the librarian has for accurately and efficiently keeping a book collection in active service, and guarding against excessive loss. Moreover, the habit of carelessness in the use of books in the classroom results in the same pupil attitude towards the books in the library room. Books lost in the classroom must be replaced; otherwise there will not be a sufficient supply of books for use during the assimilation period which is an essential part of the laboratory method technique. That means that a part of the budget for books goes toward purchasing books to replace lost, worn, and mutilated copies. This expenditure of the book fund for replacements affects the growth of the library book collection. It results in a library collection that does not represent the sum of human knowledge, but is rather a store-room for books that the classroom is not using.

Given a budget without a limit, the school could provide an adequate supply of books for each classroom, replace the books lost in the classroom, and still keep the library well enough stocked with books to supply the demands of teachers and pupils. But few schools are fortunate enough to be in such a favorable financial condition. As a rule, the library budget is inadequate to the task of supplying books for branch libraries in the classroom, and, at the same time, keeping the library up to date. Nor is there usually an emergency fund that will take care of the unusual situations that arise in every school, as, for instance, a new teacher who wants additional material; a new course that requires that absolutely new books be provided.

It would seem that in a system in which all the assimila-

tion is done in the classroom, there would be little need for a school library. But in reality, the laboratory system and its modifications cannot be carried on without the library. In addition to making the material available for all classrooms, the library is the only place where overlapping material can be used by all departments. No subject matter is all inclusive. There is an interrelation between all fields of knowledge. Many books are used in more than one subject. It is in the library that the correlation of the subject matter of the various courses takes place. The general reference books, for example, which are not devoted to any special field, but which are valuable in the research work of all departments in the school, have no other logical place than in the school library.

Although the laboratory method provides for an assimilation period in the classroom, all the assimilation is not actually done there. The dull pupil will take advantage of the opportunity to continue this process of assimilation in the library, while the bright pupil will find there a place conducive to further research. The stimulation that the classroom gives is immediately evident in the library by the demands that the pupil makes on its resources. For the appreciation courses, using the laboratory method, the library furnishes the books by means of which the students form a discriminating reading taste. The library furnishes the material for the voluntary projects which the students plan, and the librarian helps them to accomplish their attempts. The laboratory method of teaching has the effect of increasing enormously the amount of reading done by the pupils. This is very evident from the greatly increased circulation of books for home reading that follows close upon the adoption of the laboratory method of teaching. Much of the background material for all units of instruction which the pupils need to make the subjects studied real and vital is found in the library.

The library is thus the centralizing agency in laboratory teaching. All the material is prepared, distributed, and administered in the most economical way. Here the correlation of subject matter takes place, and here the pupil continues the learning process begun in the classroom. The library gives unity to the instruction, and provides a way of giving expression to and satisfying the interests that the classroom gives to the pupil. Only through the school library is it possible to make provision for the ever changing goal that the laboratory method sets up as the ideal in pupil growth in power.

It must be recognized that classroom libraries are valuable because they further the teaching. Moreover, they must be looked upon as an integral part of the school library. The librarian must devise some system whereby the teachers can administer the classroom libraries without undue loss of material. If the librarian can gain the interest of the teachers in the problem of economical library service, they will coöperate with her. However, the librarian cannot correlate the library service with the teaching activities of the school unless there is an adequate book fund which will provide all the books needed in the classrooms and which will also keep the school library well supplied with material.

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CHAPTER XII

THE LIBRARY AS AN ADJUNCT TO THE CLASSROOM

Few modes of teaching now in vogue in secondary schools can be carried on without the use of a library. The formal assignment of lessons to be learned from a textbook by the pupils and recited to the teacher the following day is an almost obsolete practice. In place of this outworn method has come the realization that the pupil in order to be educated must be stimulated to self-activity. The problem, project, and laboratory methods of teaching, and such modifications of these modes as the differentiated assignment and the contract system, are all practical applications of this principle to actual classroom procedure. Whatever the method used, the aim of the teacher is to secure from each child the amount of self-initiated activity of which he is individually capable. Each pupil is to develop to the maximum of his own abilities; and his progress or regression is measured not according to a general set standard of accomplishment, but in relation to his innate capacity. Although the work in the classroom may be planned for a class, yet latitude is given within that plan for each pupil to translate classroom activity into terms of his own interests and experiences.

The great mass of pupils who enter our high schools each year, no matter from what different motives, must all be given training that will prove of permanent as well as immediate value to them. This is the school's contribution to the improvement of our democracy, of which these children are the future members. For the pupil of marked abilities,

who must be stimulated to make the most of his gifts; for the average pupil, willing, but not overquick to learn; for the indifferent pupil, with the "teach-me-if-you-can" attitude; for the child who intends to go to college or the one who regards high school as the logical conclusion to his preparations for making a living—for all these children, no matter how varied the types, the school must provide interests and activities that will strengthen the abilities they already have and suggest new applications of these abilities, and must open up to them new avenues of effort.

It is by utilizing the wide appeal that a varied collection of books makes that the library can be of service to the classroom in carrying out its work of educating the pupils. Some one has said that the modern high-school recitation is one-half laboratory and one-half library. For certain departments in the school, such as English and history, which have no specialized laboratories in connection with their class work, the library is the primary source of material, and should be organized to serve as a laboratory. This same close contact between classroom and library is possible also in the case of such subjects as art appreciation, current topics, geography, journalism, Latin, mathematics, modern languages, music appreciation, social studies, and the course in the use of books and libraries. Certain other departments in the school, which either have a specialized laboratory, as in the case of physics, chemistry, biology, and cooking, or utilize a special application period for the teaching of certain skills, for example, commercial subjects, manual and household arts, drawing and painting, can use the library as a secondary laboratory. There the student can find (1) books that will serve as background material for the course; (2) books that will help him to correlate that subject with other subjects; and (3) books that will furnish him the wide reading necessary to make the manual and scientific skills interesting to him.

A part, then, of the laboratory procedure will take place in the specialized laboratory or practice hours in the classroom, while certain of the assimilative processes on the work and play level will take place in the library. No two departments will require the same kind or amount of service from the library; but to all departments the well-equipped, efficiently organized library can give important assistance of some kind.

Getting the maximum of the potential use of the library will depend on the coöperation of the teacher, the librarian, and the pupil. Good library service must be planned just as the work in a science laboratory is planned. In order that the teacher may use a school library intelligently and effectively she must:

Know the books in her subject and in related subjects.

Know the books available in the particular school library.

Make plans to use the material in the library in advance of the time the material is to be used.

Plan her assignments definitely, in which case she must give definite references; or plan to stimulate voluntary interest, in which case she must be ready with suggestions.

Inform the library in advance of her plans to use books or visual material, and designate how the material is to be used by the pupils.

Prepare the pupils for the use of the library material by pointing out the possibilities in it.

Show skill in making correlations.

A well-defined laboratory relationship can exist between the library and all departments in the school. Evidences of this can be seen in the reserve collections of books for special units of instruction, the home-reading shelves, the lesson assignments posted on the library bulletin board, the guidance bulletins in the library and the classrooms, and the work of the classroom displayed in the library. But it is the personal work of the librarian that is of the

utmost importance in making the library serve as a laboratory for the classroom. The librarian must:

Know the assignments of the teacher in order to provide the material. This knowledge is essential, if she is to guide pupils in their efforts to get the results that the teacher has planned.

Make library conditions favorable so that it may serve as an adjunct to the classroom.

Direct the study activities of the pupils.

Supply the material the pupil will need.

Help pupils to discover their own interests in the subject.

Be prepared to suggest material in other libraries.

Show pupils the possibilities of correlation of subject matter.

Check up on the real and the assumed interests of pupils.

Call the attention of the teacher to material in books and magazines that will enrich the subject matter she is teaching.

Influence pupils to do extensive and free reading on the subject studied.

In the use of the library as the laboratory, the teacher and librarian must realize that unless the plans are carefully made and systematically carried out, the pupils will not benefit greatly by the arrangement. There must be a consistent coöperation between the classroom and the library. If the assignment by the teacher receives a tardy response in the library, or if the teacher has not prepared in advance for the use of library material, the pupils will feel that they are justified in not preparing the assignment. Such a state of affairs is demoralizing to the pupil. Furthermore, it offers pupils who wish to avoid the trouble of studying, an opportunity to give inability to get library material as an excuse for their failure to come up to classroom requirements. In one school, in order to avoid such an undesirable classroom situation, the librarian reports to the teacher her inability to provide material, and only upon receipt of such a statement does the teacher credit the excuse of the pupils as valid. Since this system has

been in use in the school, few such excuses are offered. Coöperation between the teacher and the librarian is essential.

Perhaps the most valuable function that the school library fills is that of correlating subject matter. The tendency in all departments is to isolate certain blocks of knowledge in order that they may be fitted into a course of study that answers certain objectives. This is a form of specialization important in the learning process. But equally important is the acquisition of a sense of the interrelation of subject and subject. Although progressive teachers will always indicate as far as possible the wide range of possible intellectual interests in their subject matter, there is little opportunity in the classroom for carrying on much exploration into allied fields. It is in the school library that time and material are offered for intellectual excursions into the by-paths of any division of subject matter. All subjects have related interests, which the well-chosen book collection will make evident. Two examples, one from the humanities and one from science, will illustrate this fact:

LATIN	RELATED INTEREST
Roman coins	Stamp and coin club
Roman social life	Community life
Roman history	Ancient history
Ancient and modern Rome	Current topics
Historical fiction	Free reading
Roman drama	English drama
Roman architecture	Art appreciation
Roman design	Geometry
Roman dress	Home economics
Roman lettering	Mechanical drawing
Roman language	French, Spanish, English

The possibilities for correlation in mathematics are greater than would seem possible:

MATHEMATICS

Mathematics
 Mathematics
 Mathematical graphs and charts
 Mathematical measurements
 Chronology
 Mathematical applications
 Mathematical games, puzzles

RELATED INTEREST

Science
 Decorative art
 In all subjects
 Manual arts
 History
 In everyday life
 Play level

Pupils may be more interested in one subject in the curriculum than in another. Hence, since there are no fixed frontiers of knowledge, interest in one subject may be utilized as an approach to another. For example: A pupil who was vitally interested in mathematics exhibited but little enthusiasm for reading. When the importance of the relation of the rate of reading to comprehension was called to his attention, he undertook to work out his own rate of reading in mathematical terms; and, in the process of doing this, he learned to enjoy reading. There are numberless other possibilities of a transfer of interest from one subject to another, among which are the following:

TRANS-
FERRED

INTEREST	INTEREST	UNDERTAKING (MEANS OF TRANSFER)
History	English	Epic—William of Orange
Geography	English	Map—Wanderings of Ulysses
Shop	History	Development of the iron industry
Latin	French	Comparison of the languages
History	Latin	A day in ancient Rome
English	Science	Bird poetry
English	History	Collection of Civil War Poetry
Science	English	Trees and their poetry
Athletics	History	Greek athletic sports
Athletics	Science	Muscles—how they work
Shop	Physics	Horse power and efficiency of motors
Home economics	English	Costume during Shakespeare's time

Effective teaching presupposes an attempt to appeal to the chief interest of each pupil, no matter what that interest may be or how difficult it is to discover it. Every adolescent pupil has an interest if we but know how to find it. The school library offers the place and the material most conducive to the revelation by the child of his secret and most cherished ambitions and to the furtherance of those of his preferences that are already markedly developed. Surrounded by an atmosphere of quietness and of purposeful effort, with books and magazines to suggest and satisfy their intellectual interests, the pupils can both find themselves and lose themselves in the world of books. It is the preferences that the pupils show in this situation, that can be utilized as approaches to the development of their interest in subject matter. It would be too much to enumerate all the different approaches that can be made, but a few will prove suggestive.

A pupil interested in some certain art or occupation will enjoy reading about people who have accomplished something in that field; for it is only human to be curious about the life and achievements of others. This interest, which may be called the biographical interest, furnishes one of the approaches to many fields of knowledge. Carlyle once said that history is the essence of innumerable biographies; that is, that the history of the world is a record of the achievements of the great men who have lived in it. The biographical approach is valuable in every subject, but can be used successfully only after the pupils have been stimulated to want to become acquainted with the great human personalities who have contributed to the knowledge or experiences which have gone into the subject matter. The biography of Stevenson is of vital interest to a lover of the books which Stevenson wrote. The life of Edison is of real interest to those to whom his inventive genius is either an ideal or a challenge. The record of Pasteur's

achievements furnishes an inspiration and suggests consecration to the service of research to those who have a real interest in, and understanding of, scientific things. Great lives have the quality of inspiration.

Dramatization, because it requires activity of all kinds, is a popular approach to subject matter. It serves as an outlet for the mental and physical energy of the child and gives him a chance to exercise his emotions. This exercise of the emotions is of the utmost importance. In the ordinary subject matter there is little opportunity for the exercise of those subjective feelings or for the expression of artistic emotions which the adolescent pupil has in such abundance. Because of its consistent appeal to their reason, and its consequent disregard of their emotions and feelings, the rational content of the subject matter often makes a study seem monotonous and uninteresting to the pupils. There are, however, more possibilities for making the subject matter of a course alive with feeling and action than is ordinarily supposed. In one school, the story of Guinevere was dramatized and given as a puppet show. In another school, a one-act play on the life of Goldsmith was written and acted before a class engaged in the study of eighteenth century literature. A "book play" given in assembly brought to life the characters in great books, and thereby increased the reading of these books. Many important historical events and movements will suggest material for interesting pageants. A fashion show in connection with the course in sewing will give occasion for purposeful activity and will also create an interest in the study of the historical development of costume. The dramatized history of the growth of science will make real as nothing else can, the early inauspicious beginnings of scientific experiment and the present overwhelming importance of science in life. A dramatic presentation of the lives of the pioneer workers for the women's suffrage movement will give the

pupils a deeper sympathy with and understanding of the ideals which actuate its followers.

School libraries are usually well stocked with books of geography and travel, for such books are always popular with adolescent pupils. From the time of Marco Polo up to the present time, travelers have been more than willing to tell of their travels, and the stay-at-homes have been more than willing to listen to, or to read about, tales of the journey. There is a fascination about distances and strange places that never grows stale. To the young, travel is synonymous with adventure. If they cannot really have the adventure, the next best thing is to read about it. This interest which all pupils have can be utilized as an approach to any subject matter.

It is by the opportunity which the library affords to pupils to get the geographical background in both English and history that much of this innate interest in geography and travel is enlisted in the service of the classroom. What would the *Canterbury Tales* mean to the pupils unless they could visualize Tabard Inn and the journey of the pilgrims to Canterbury? How much of eighteenth century English life would the pupil miss if he did not read about the "grand tour"?

Geography and travel furnish a vital approach to the study of history. In the United States, for instance, much of our history has been a record of the ever receding western frontier. Boys are interested in the travels of Lewis and Clark, of Daniel Boone, and of Whitman, not only because they admire the characters of these pioneers, but mostly because of the adventures they experienced as they blazed new trails through the wilderness. Wide reading of this sort will arouse in the pupil an interest which can be utilized in classroom activities and in motivating map-making. What boy who has followed in imagination the route and the fortunes of Daniel Boone will not be easily

influenced to make a map of Boone's journey in connection with his classroom work?

Not only by means of reading do children enjoy travels and traveling. They like to look at the pictures in travel books. Picture reading gives them a familiarity with people and places that is invaluable to them in their school work. It can be supplemented by stereopticon views, by slides and by motion pictures, thus adding visual images to their reading knowledge of other lands.

An approach to subject matter through the imaginative life of the child holds out rich possibilities. In connection with history, the reading of historical fiction will help to make historical events, movements, and personages real to the pupil. The pupil is likely to transfer the interest thus gained to the subject matter in the course. In an idle moment a pupil may pick up in the library a copy of *The Covered Wagon*. He is carried away with the plot of the story, with the characterization, with the exciting incidents; but at the same time he is getting a good background for the western expansion of the United States. Never again will he be entirely indifferent to that phase of history when it is taken up in the classroom. His imagination and feelings have been sufficiently enlisted to make the western expansion real and vital to him because the author has given enough detail to enable the pupil to reconstruct that period in his imagination.

Certain personages seem to be so far away in point of time, and so far above ordinary human beings by reason of their preëminence, as to make the child doubt whether they could actually be made of real flesh and blood. For instance, Cæsar, as the pupils see him, is no more than a bust, the picture of which appears as a frontispiece in the copy of his commentaries on the Gallic War. As they struggle to translate the Latin, pupils are more than ever certain that Cæsar's adventures are as improbable as is

the fact that the forbidding pictured likeness in the book is that of a real man. How to make Cæsar, his life and his times interesting to the pupils, is a problem many teachers have to face, and one which can be solved only by the help of the library. Here there are many books on Roman social life, and a wealth of imaginative fiction dealing with important historical personages and events. W. S. Davis's novel, *The Friend of Cæsar*, for instance, has made him as human as you or I; by showing Cæsar participating in the ordinary human relationships and by giving details of his daily life, the author has fitted Cæsar into a background which explains and humanizes him and convinces the child that such a man really did exist. The incidents and episodes in such books are rich in the qualities that make for interest. No pupil who has ever read this book will fail to find Cæsar a great and even likable personality.

It is generally supposed that science does not permit of the exercise of the imagination. This is, of course, true in regard to the principles taught and the laboratory work carried on, but there is a large group of books of the popular-science type in the library which gives information and still appeals to the imagination. By taking advantage of these books for extensive and free reading, the science department can increase enormously the interest in pure science. For general science there are a great number of books of a semiscientific nature on animal life which pupils enjoy; animal stories of the fiction type are always favorites with the children. Books of nature poetry can be used in nature study with good effect, especially during the spring of the year. Such books as *Microbe Hunters* by De Kruif have the surprising and very pleasing combination of scientific accuracy and imaginative appeal, blended with the touch of humor that science usually lacks. The books of Verne have always been prime favorites with chil-

dren. These are not as improbable from the science point of view as they once were. It was, perhaps, that very element of improbability which they possess that made them attractive to children. Many children have been influenced by the fanciful content of the Verne books to attempt experiments themselves, and from this dabbling in imaginary science have been led to an interest in real experiments.

Pupils with special creative abilities should be given the opportunity of approaching subject matter through their special interest. It is this type of pupil in our schools who has heretofore had great difficulty in coming up to the formal requirements of the school. Formerly it was felt that if the pupil belonged to the motor or the art type, that was ample explanation for his being a failure in the academic subjects. Such opinion no longer prevails. With the individualization of instruction, the pupils with special creative gifts are given the opportunity of using the means of expression which they possess. This expression may take various forms. The following are only a few of the activities which some of the specially endowed pupils of one school completed: The musical score for a lyric poem was furnished by one pupil; cartoons illustrating one of the short stories by O. Henry were handed to the librarian to be inserted in the book; stage settings for one-act plays resulted from the study of the drama; the models of Elizabethan ships were made for the history class by boys with manual skill; small models of scientific apparatus were completed by boys with manual skill and scientific interest; lunettes of printers' marks were made by pupils for the library; bookplates were designed for the personal use of pupils; mural decorations were designed and carried out to cover spaces in the library; specifications and drawings were made for a special case to be built for the library; large mathematical instruments were designed and built for the mathematics room. Some part at least of the

varied activity stated above was carried on in the school library. The pupil may have read widely before undertaking the creative project, or may have studied illustrated material before starting his work. As work progresses, the pupil usually discusses with the librarian what he has done, and asks for advice or suggestions for further activity. Thus the librarian guides and directs many pupil undertakings which, when finished, help to enrich the classroom hour.

Practical approaches to subject matter are necessary in this practical age. These can be made by a practical application of the theoretical knowledge taught in school. If given the opportunity, the pupils themselves will look for the practical use of the subject studied. In science, evidences of the principles studied are all about us. The pupils will observe these proofs, whether they are machinery or a process of manufacture. They will find the subject increasingly interesting and worth while because the subject matter takes on the vitality of usefulness. The principles learned in the classroom come to mean more than just something to be learned by rote. In Latin, linking up the relation of that language to English will give pupils a comprehension of the importance of Latin as a tool in everyday speech as well as a realization of the cultural importance of the language. In history, linking up the past with the present gives that feeling of continuity which is essential to the understanding of the subject. Current topics which are history in the making should be a part of history classroom procedure. If the pupils can be stimulated to bring into the classroom for the bulletin board items from the daily papers bearing on the topic which is being studied, much interest can be generated, and the principle of historical evidence can be informally taught. In all subjects, some application of principles or of subject matter is possible, and should be utilized

in the recitation, in the visual material used on the bulletin board, and in the voluntary projects which the pupils are stimulated to undertake.

The use of the school library as an adjunct to the classroom offers an opportunity for varying classroom procedure. A wide range of interests and activities is possible if the classroom and the library work together, because in the library subjects in the curriculum can be correlated and coördinated. There are a number of activities belonging to every department in the school which can be carried on partly in the classroom and partly in the library. Pupils in the courses in English, history, journalism, or current topics can be appointed to edit a daily newspaper in the library from clippings taken from the daily papers and from current magazines. This activity will not only keep all the pupils in the school informed on the current topics of the day, but will also give to the pupils engaged in the work a sense of proportion and the ability to select and evaluate material, and to judge of its suitability to the school situation. The clippings which apply especially to special subject topics studied in the classroom can be sent to that room for the classroom bulletin board.

The use of maps in the library will stimulate the interest of pupils in reading geography, English, and history. The large "Map of Good Stories" can be used to record the reading of pupils. The geographical location of the background of stories which the author has made real can be designated on the map. In history a map can be used to show both the place in which the action of the historical novel has taken place and the century in which the main events happened. This will motivate the extensive reading of imaginative literature in connection with the course. For geography, each pupil can be provided with a small individual map, while a large map is kept in the library

upon which the travels of the entire class are recorded. Each pupil thus keeps an accurate record of the imaginary travels by the class as a whole. The by-product of this map activity is a knowledge of place geography acquired in a natural manner. The pupil will consult the atlas and gazetteers because he wants to locate a definite place in order to make a record of his reading.

The library may be used to vary the monotony in English composition by means of exercises in letter writing. Each of the pupils in a class takes as a *nom de plume* the name of one of the characters in a book he has read, and writes letters in the style of that character. These letters are then addressed to another student, under his adopted name, the *nom de plume* of each pupil being known only to the teacher and to the librarian. At stated periods each pupil places his letter in the letter box provided for that purpose in the library. These letters are read by the teacher to see if the form is acceptable, and she selects letters to read to her class. This activity allows for the wide play of the imagination. The added element of an unknown correspondent lends mystery, charm, and wholesome humor to the situation. It is often found true that pupils who are usually inarticulate in their real person have no difficulty in expressing themselves in the imaginary person of a character in a book they like. The situation often produces such incongruous situations as Little Nell corresponding with Becky Sharp, or Silas Marner pouring out his troubles to the Three Musketeers.

Pupils can be interested in informal constructive criticism and thus increase their taste in good reading by taking up in class, under the direction of the teacher, such questions as, What makes a good book good? What makes a poor book poor? This criticism should be supported by objective evidence from books which the pupils have actually read. The class as a whole and each

individual pupil will arrive more quickly at some criteria for judging a book when thoughtful and free expression of opinion is possible to them. Criticism of this sort will reveal the type of books the pupils are actually reading, and will also increase the reading of additional books, because the book suggestions made by other pupils are more likely to be considered interesting than suggestions made by the teacher. In this classroom activity, there is the opportunity for æsthetic expression of experiences, the exchange of ideas about books, and the suggestion of names of books that will be of interest to other members of the class. This results in an increase in the voluntary reading of worth-while books. Another activity that can be made to result in an increase of reading done in the library is that of having all the pupils in the English classes vote for the books that would come up to the standard of interest and excellence required for books on the home-reading shelves in the library. In preparing for such an exercise, the pupil will have to examine a number of books in the library with the result that he will find some book that looks interesting to him. This procedure helps to create an interest in home reading in advance of its assignment.

Any class may be brought to the auxiliary room connected with the library, for an exploration hour. Here the librarian can assemble the books and visual material to be used, in advance of the class hour, and the students may be given the opportunity to read, or to carry on workshop activities. Specimens may be provided for science classes, and victrola records played that will correlate music with other appreciation subjects such as lyric poetry, drama and art appreciation. Round-table discussions of independent reading done can be conducted on all subjects, and slides, the stereopticon and motion pictures used to illustrate other subject matter.

The observance of special days or special weeks offers

an opportunity for classroom and library coöperation. During Apple Week part of the activity can be a problem for the science classroom, while part of it is carried on in the library. The great national holidays can be utilized by both the history classes and the library for stimulating the interest of pupils in American history. Better Speech Week can be observed in an interesting manner in the English classes by calling attention to effective oral speech as an ideal for each pupil. Using the dialogue in the books which the pupils read in the library to illustrate slang, dialect, and provincialism in speech as well as clear, effective speech, will help to bring home the message of the week most effectively.

There is a chance to use the play interests of pupils in initiating intellectual games in the library. The classes in general science and the English classes which are studying nature poetry would profit by a game carried on in the library during the spring of the year when pupils are especially interested in the out-of-doors. The nature contest in the library consists of a bulletin board upon which is displayed, at intervals of a week, three series of pictures of five each on the subjects of birds, flowers, and trees. Near this bulletin board is a bookshelf with a special collection on birds during bird week; of books on flowers during flower week; and of books on trees during tree week. Each pupil in the two classes mentioned is given a mimeographed sheet upon which he identifies the pictures on the library bulletin board, and gives the author, title, and page of the book in which he found his information. The librarian examines these sheets to check up the accuracy of book references, and then turns them in to the teacher, who marks them for the accuracy of information. Such exercises may be turned into contests between classes or individuals in a class. Since the activity is carried on in the library, the librarian can supervise it.

Self-activity on the part of the pupils is greatly increased if the students can work under conditions which approximate those which exist in a workshop. The library offers a chance for intellectual and manual correlation which is favorable to workshop activity. All tools, implements, and materials that the pupils may need for translating subject matter into some mode of expression should be a part of the library equipment and supplies. Such equipment as drawing instruments, crayons, paints, inks, special pens, rulers, shears, and paste should be available to the pupils during their library period. The library is the logical place for any purposeful form of pupil self-activity and expression which does not interfere with the library atmosphere of quiet and order. In one school library, the following variety of activities were carried on in the library during one school day: A number of pupils were engaged in identifying and pasting pictures in their scrapbooks for the course in survey of art; two pupils were engaged in making a poster for the French Club meeting; several pupils were drawing geometrical designs for mathematics projects; one girl was making a card index of cooking recipes for the class in cooking; two girls were sewing on garments for the sewing class, while one girl was engaged in identifying samples of materials for the same class; one girl was engaged in making paper flowers for the school carnival; two girls were working on the miniature stages for their drama class; one boy was identifying and mounting leaves; two boys were working on drawings for the mechanical drawing class; several pupils were busily engaged in working on outline maps for the history course; one girl was engaged in drawing a house plan for her summer cottage; and two pupils were writing musical scores for the music appreciation class. All these activities were going on while the great majority of pupils were engaged in reading or in studying, and though the library was, in a sense, teeming

with activity, it had at the same time that air of quiet and order which is so necessary if the library room is to function properly. The great ideal of the library should be that of serving the interest of each and every pupil in the school, no matter whether that interest be directed toward reading, or toward any other activity which is purposeful. Whatever the taste and bent of the individual pupil, he should be able to find in the library something to interest him, and materials for engaging in that interest.

As far as the secondary school is concerned, the long summer vacation period seems to be used by pupils mainly as a period in which to forget all they learned during their school year. This vacation period offers a problem in training pupils for leisure which the great majority of schools has not faced squarely. The great army of teachers close their desks the last day of school with no thought or concern for how the months of leisure will affect their pupils. It is as if the faucet of education were turned on in September, and turned off the following June. And yet the school should feel some responsibility for the months in which pupils have the leisure to carry on some of the interests stimulated in the classroom. In every subject in the curriculum, the classroom teacher and the librarian should coöperate in the preparation of suggestions of intellectual activities which might be undertaken by the pupils during the summer months. These suggestions should be so varied that they will offer something that will give pleasure to every individual in the class, no matter what his particular gift, talent, or bent. Special book lists to fit the needs of individual pupils should be compiled by the librarian after consultation with teacher and pupil. This will make it possible for the pupil to utilize the public library, which is available during the vacation period while the school and the school library are closed. Pupils will thus tend to become library users, and will be enabled to

develop more fully an effective reading taste. Projects undertaken by the pupils during the vacation should be correlated with the regular work of the school year. If the possibilities for mental growth and experience during the vacation period were pointed out to pupils, many of them would profit by such advice, and, following out the plan laid down for them, would soon show the improvement which leisure well spent can give.

One of the most important evidences of good teaching is the proof that the pupil has adapted the subject matter taught in the classroom to his own special needs. Subject matter must be translated by each pupil into his own needs and experiences. If the pupil has not done this, he has more or less learned lessons, but he has not become educated. Education presupposes a change in the individual, in his mental life, experiences, attitudes, or standards. If these changes have not taken place, the sum total of his high-school attainments is a body of half-digested subject matter which will shortly be forgotten, if it was ever really remembered. It is in the school library that evidences of adaptation can be observed, for most of the assignments given in the classroom call for the use of library material in some form or other. The way in which a pupil approaches an assignment reveals his attitude toward his work. The growth of interest as a subject progresses is also evident in the fact that the pupil loses himself in his study, his growing interest in the subject carrying him far into the bypaths of the subject matter. The enthusiasm of discovering in the material something which is worth while for him makes of study an adventure, and, like an adventure, gives him a pleasurable feeling. However, it is not in the pupil's reaction to assignments that the major evidence of adaptation is forthcoming. A pupil must read intensively in order to come up to the classroom requirement; and he must read extensively to get the correlation

of subject matter. It is only in his free reading that the pupil can show exactly what he enjoys to read. Here there is no pressure; here he is a free agent to choose or reject; here, in the free reading the child does in the library, the real evidence of his adaptation can be obtained. If the pupil reads books on scientific subjects, whether they are of the popular type or whether they make applications of science to the affairs of everyday life, the evidence is strong that he has found in the science classroom something which has become a part of himself. Does he read poetry for pleasure? The probabilities are that the classroom experience with poetry has given him a liking for it and a desire to continue his experience in that direction. Has the pupil become interested in some phase of history? The evidence is to be found in his follow-up of that interest from pure curiosity, or through the reading of a work of imagination dealing with that subject. For evidence of improvement of general taste and level in reading, which it is the province of the teacher of literature to engender and guide, the evidence does not lie in what pupils will read in the classroom and at the suggestion of the English teacher, but rather what they will choose for the free reading which they do of their own volition.

It is possible for the librarian to observe not only the adaptation pupils make to the work in the classroom, but also to note and differentiate between their assumed and real interests. Without meaning to be dishonest, the pupils often assume an interest in books which they do not actually have. This is often necessary in part, if they are to get a grade in a subject. Oftentimes, amusingly enough, this assumed interest leads in the end to a real interest. The librarian can by tactful guidance initiate and follow up the interests of pupils, make the correlation between subject matter of different courses, and point out possibilities in approach. Since the guidance of the library is

informal, she can get the real reactions of the pupils and is thus in the best position to build her guidance upon the foundation of genuine interests. Such a service often results in changing the attitude of a pupil from one of indifference to one of purposeful effort. It brings latent interest to life. It deepens his newborn interest into enthusiasm.

To get the best results from the use of the library as an adjunct to the classroom, the librarian must not only look upon it as a laboratory but must get the vision of the room as an opportunity room. If she can "put across" this idea to pupils and teachers, she is likely to get not only their best work, but also their best interest, through their use of all the potential service which the library has to offer. In schools in which both the direct and indirect objectives of the library are recognized, it is possible for the library really to serve as the opportunity room for all interests in the school, academic, intellectual, and social.

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- MACPHAIL, R. C., "The Relation of the English Department to the High School Library," *Library Journal*, Vol. 51, 1926, pp. 421-423.
- MORGAN, J. E., "School Libraries and Americanization," *Addresses and Proceedings of the National Education Association*, 1920, pp. 386-387.
- TWISS, G. R., "The Relation of the Science Department to the High School Library," *Public Libraries*, Vol. 25, 1920, pp. 47-49.
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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION SCORE CARD FOR SCHOOL LIBRARIES

During the autumn of 1927, the North Central Association sent to every high school in the association the following score card:¹

SCORE CARD FOR SCHOOL LIBRARIES

- | | | |
|--|--|---|
| 1. State..... | 2. City..... | <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. High school | | |
| 4. High-school enrollment | <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> | 5. Grades..... |
| 6. Number of librarians <input type="checkbox"/> | 7. Seating capacity in library | <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 8. Number of volumes in library..... | <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| 9. Person reporting..... | 10. Position..... | |

1-24. LIBRARY SERVICE THROUGH THE LIBRARIAN

Stand-
ard School

Amount of Service:

1. If the librarian and assistants give service in the library the full teaching day.....Score 5 ☐

2-8. QUALIFICATIONS

Personnel Relations:

2. If the librarian coöperates in school policies and objectivesScore 1 ..

¹Score card is in tentative form.

Stand-
ard School*Intellectual Interests:*

3. If she demonstrates wide knowledge of books and sources of material of tangible value to the school
Score 2 ..

Organizing Ability:

4. If the material in the library is well balanced, well arranged, and easily accessible.....Score 3 ..

Education and Professional Library Training:

5. If the librarian has a college or university degree
Score 1 ..
6. If a library-school certificate, or a library degree
Score 1 ..

Experience:

7. If she has had successful public library experience in reference work and in work with young people
Score 1 ..

Certification:

8. If she has a state library certification or endorsementScore 1 ..

Items 2-8Total Score 10 ☐☐

9-12. STATUS

9. If the librarian has the same status in the school as the teachers of equal preparation and responsibilityScore 2 ..
10. If the librarian's salary is on the same schedule as the teachers'Score 1 ..
11. For equal vacation allowanceScore 1 ..
12. For full time trained assistant for every 1,000 pupils enrolledScore 1 ..
- Items 9-12Total Score* 5 ☐

13-24. DUTIES

Educational:

13. If the librarian directs the reference work of the pupilsScore $\frac{1}{2}$..

Stand-
ard School

- | | | | |
|--|-------|----|----|
| 14. If the librarian guides and provides aids for the recreational (nonrequired) reading of the pupils | Score | 1 | .. |
| 15. If she gives regular instruction in the use of books and the library | Score | 1 | .. |
| 16. If she helps the teachers to find suitable material on special topics | Score | 1½ | .. |

Administrative:

- | | | | |
|---|-------|----|----|
| 17. If the librarian participates in planning the room and equipment | Score | 1 | .. |
| 18. If she has built up or is building an effective working organization..... | Score | 1 | .. |
| 19. If the library appropriation is divided to cover all needs | Score | 1½ | .. |
| 20. If she coöperates with other library organizations | Score | 2 | .. |

Technical:

- | | | | |
|---|-------|----|----|
| 21. For adequate charging system to locate books when in circulation | Score | 1½ | .. |
| 22. For classification and cataloguing adequate for speedy location of books or material..... | Score | 1 | .. |
| 23. If books and material are in good condition and arrangement | Score | 1½ | .. |

Clerical:

- | | | | |
|--|-------|---|----|
| 24. If the librarian is not required to do clerical work | Score | 2 | .. |
|--|-------|---|----|

Items 13-24 *Total Score* 10 ☐☐

25-33. SERVICE THROUGH USE OF THE LIBRARY

25-28. To PUPILS

- | | | | |
|---|-------|---|----|
| 25. If all pupils in the school use the library at some time | Score | 5 | .. |
| 26. If the pupils seem happy in using the library. | Score | 1 | .. |
| 27. If pupils' reading record of recreational and non-required books is kept..... | Score | 1 | .. |

28. If the library is open for recreational reading at the lunch hourScore 1 ..
- Items 25-28Total Score 8* ☐

29-30. TO TEACHERS

29. If the librarian has encouraged each teacher to stimulate her pupils to use the school and the public libraryScore 4 ..
30. If the librarian has encouraged each teacher to use the library for personal reading, professional study or communication with the public library
Score 4 ..
- Items 29-30Total Score 8* ☐

31-33. EXTRACURRICULAR USE

31. If exhibits showing the work of the library are held at the time of the general school exhibit..Score 1 ..
32. If exhibits showing the work of the library are held at the time of parent-teacher meetings....Score 1 ..
33. If the library is used as the center of school activitiesScore 2 ..
- (If meetings or parties closing the library for book usage are held in the library, give No. 33 a score of 0.)

Items 31-33Total Score 4 ☐

34-40. SERVICE THROUGH THE BOOK COLLECTION

Number of Suitable Books:

34. If the number of suitable books averages six per pupil enrolled in the schoolScore 4 ☐

Annual Acquisitions:

35. If new material, replacements, and duplicates, as needed, are added annually.....Score 2 ☐

Subject Range of the Book Collection:

36. If each school department is represented in the libraryScore 4 ☐

Periodicals:

37. If there is a working collection of periodicals, including *The Readers' Guide* to periodical literatureScore 2 ☐

Other Forms of Material:

38. If there are files of clippings, bulletins, pictures, posters, etc.Score 2 ☐

Items 34-38.....Total Score 14 ☐

Book-Selection Policy:

39. If the book-selection responsibility is given to the librarian, with the teachers' advice.....Score 3 ..

40. If the standard of quality of the books is equivalent to that maintained in public libraries.Score 3 ..

Items 39-40Total Score 6 ☐

41-47. MAINTENANCE AND CONTROL

Appropriation:

41. If library has a definite appropriation according to the standardsScore 3 ☐

Division of Appropriation (Budget):

42. If library funds are distributed according to a budget planScore 2 ..

43. If salaries are on the same schedule as teachers..
Score 2 ..

44. If books and periodical budget is according to standardScore 2 ..

45. If there is a budget item for binding and supplies
Score 1 ..

46. If contingent fund is provided.....Score 1 ..

Items 42-46Total Score 8 ☐

School Control and Administration:

47. School or public library and school joint control
Score 4 ☐

(a) If the library is wholly under the school and has a librarian with education equivalent to the teachers' besides professional library training, give full score, or (b) if the library is controlled jointly by the public library and the school, has a trained librarian with education equivalent to the teachers' and ability to adjust to the school situation, give full score.

48-59. SERVICE THROUGH LIBRARY ROOM AND EQUIPMENT

Location:

48. If the library is centrally located, near study hall
but separateScore 3 ☐

Size:

49. If the library has seating capacity for ten to fifteen
per cent of the daily school attendance..Score 2 ..
50. If the library has wall space for shelving six to ten
books per pupilScore 2 ..
- Items 49-50Total Score 4 ☐

Equipment:

51. If the library has adequate daylight, and semi-
direct artificial lightingScore $1\frac{1}{2}$..
52. If it has built-in wooden wall shelving of standard
dimensions, without doorsScore $1\frac{1}{2}$..
53. If it has periodical shelving.....Score $1\frac{1}{2}$..
54. If the floor is covered with battleship linoleum or
other sound-deadening material.....Score $1\frac{1}{2}$..
- Items 51-54Total Score 2 ☐

Furniture:

55. If the room has at least chairs, tables, library desk,
card-catalogue caseScore 3 ..
56. If the furniture is of standard size and type for li-
brary useScore 1 ..

Stand-
ard School

57. If the room is of inviting appearance.....Score 1 ..

Items 55-57Total Score 5 ☐*Supplementary Rooms:*58. If the library has a connecting conference or class-
room with book shelvingScore $\frac{1}{2}$..59. For a workroom with shelving, running water, out-
side ventilationScore $\frac{1}{2}$..*Items 58-59Total Score 1* ☐GRAND TOTAL ☐☐☐

Approved

Official position

APPENDIX II

MAGAZINES SUITABLE FOR THE HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARY

Magazines for general library reading: (a) recreational;
(b) for satisfying intellectual curiosity.

American Boy
American Girl
Atlantic Monthly
Boys' Life
Century Magazine
Country Life
Current Events
Good Housekeeping
Harper's Magazine
Literary Digest
Mentor
National Geographic Magazine
Open Road
Outlook
Popular Mechanics
Popular Radio
Popular Science
Review of Reviews
St. Nicholas
Science and Invention
Scientific American
Scribner's Magazine
Time
Travel
World News
World's Work
Youth's Companion

Magazines to be used in (a) classrooms; (b) library as an adjunct to the classroom; (c) extracurricular activities of the school, for example, clubs.

- Art and Archeology* (art, Latin, ancient history)
- Arts and Decoration* (art, drawing)
- Bird Lore* (science)
- Blanco y Negro* (Spanish)
- Current History* (history)
- Drama* (English)
- El Eco* (Spanish)
- Garden and Home Builder* (home economics, shop)
- Guide to Nature* (science)
- Hygeia* (physical education, science)
- L'Illustration* (French)
- La Petite Illustration* (French)
- International Studio* (art)
- Music and Youth* (music)
- Nature Magazine* (science)
- School Arts Magazine* (art, drawing)
- Survey* (social science)
- Theatre Arts Magazine* (English)

In addition to selecting magazines from the above lists, technical high schools will provide magazines for the specialized arts and crafts taught in the school.

APPENDIX III

SELECTED BOOK LISTS

- AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION, *The Booklist* (Chicago, American Library Association). A guide to new books.
- CALIFORNIA SCHOOL LIBRARY ASSOCIATION, "A List of Books for High School Libraries of California," 1922.
- ILLINOIS ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH, *Guide to Reading*, compiled by Essie Chamberlain and Bertha Carter. (May be obtained from H. G. Paul, University of Illinois, Urbana.)
- NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR SOCIAL STUDIES, *Historical Fiction Suitable for Junior and Senior High Schools*, compiled by Hannah Logasa (Philadelphia, McKinley Publishing Co., 1927.)
- NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH, *Books for Home Reading* (National Council of Teachers of English, 6705 Yale Ave., Chicago). Graded and classified for high school and junior high school.
- NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH AND THE DRAMA LEAGUE OF AMERICA, "Plays for High Schools and Colleges" (National Council of Teachers of English, 6705 Yale Ave., Chicago, 1923).
- NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION and AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION, *Books for the High School* (American Library Association, 1924).
- PFUTZENREUTER, E. M., "Illustrated Editions of High School Classics" (Urbana, University of Illinois Library School, 1925).
- UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS, "Guide to the Organization of High School Libraries," University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. 22, No. 14. (Issued from the office of the High School Visitor, University of Illinois, Urbana).
- WASHINGTON ACADEMY OF SCIENCE, "Popular Books in Science" (American Library Association, 1925).

STATE LISTS

INDIANA, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, "List of Books for High School Libraries in Indiana," Bulletin No. 45, 1920.

MICHIGAN, Department of Public Instruction, "A Library List for High Schools," Bulletin No. 14, 1922.

MINNESOTA, Department of Education, "High School Library List," 1925.

OHIO, Department of Education, "List of Books for High School Libraries," 1925.

OREGON, Oregon State Library, "List of Books for School Libraries," Part II, "Books for High Schools," 1923.

WEST VIRGINIA, State Superintendent of Schools, Division of High Schools, "A Library List for the Use of West Virginia High Schools," 1923.

WISCONSIN, Department of Public Instruction, "First Purchase List for High School Libraries," 1922.

APPENDIX IV

SELECTED LIST OF BOOKS ON SCHOOL-LIBRARY ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

- AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION, School Library Section, *Planning the School Library* (revised ed.) (American Library Association, 1927).
- , Education Committee, *School Library Yearbook* No. 1 (American Library Association, 1927).
- , Education Committee, *School Library Yearbook* No. 2 (American Library Association, 1928).
- CERTAIN, C. C., *Standard Library Organization and Equipment for Secondary Schools* (revised ed.) (American Library Association, 1928).
- EATON, A. T., *School Library Service* (American Library Association, 1923).
- JOHNSON, F. W., *The Administration and Supervision of the High School* (Ginn & Co., 1925), Chap. XVI, pp. 303-320.
- , "An Analysis of the Duties Pertaining to a High School Library," *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 29, No. 3 (December, 1927).
- KOOS, F. H., "State Participation in Public School Library Service," *Columbia University Contributions to Education*, No. 265 (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927).
- PHILLIPS, F. M., "Accredited Secondary Schools in the United States" (Bulletin of the United States Bureau of Education, No. 11, 1925).
- PRITCHARD, M. C., *Platoon School Libraries*, Part II, "Manual for a Course in School Library Administration" (Detroit Teachers College Publications, Serial No. 1, January, 1926).

San Antonio Public Schools Bulletin, "The Junior School Libraries," Vol. 3, No. 1 (Board of Education, San Antonio, Texas, 1925).

SEVERANCE, H. O., *A Library Primer for High Schools* (2d ed., rev.) (Columbia, Mo., Lucas Brothers, 1927).

"Standard Library Organization and Equipment for Secondary Schools," Library School Bulletin of the New York State Library No. 45 (Albany, 1920).

WILLIAMS, SHERMAN, *School Libraries, Their History, Development, Present Purpose and Function in Our Educational System* (University of the State of New York, School Libraries Division, State Department of Education, 1922).

APPENDIX V

BOOKS ON VOCATIONS AND VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

- ADAMS, E. K., *Women Professional Workers* (Macmillan Co., 1921).
- ADAMS, H. C., *Description of Industry* (Henry Holt & Co., 1918).
- ALLEN, F. J., *Advertising as a Vocation* (Macmillan Co., 1919).
- , *Guide to the Study of Occupations* (Harvard University Press, 1921).
- , *The Law as a Vocation* (Harvard University Press, 1919).
- AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION, *Librarianship as a Profession for College Trained Men and Women* (2d ed.) (American Library Association, 1927).
- BABSON, R. W., *Making Good in Business* (Fleming H. Revell & Co., 1921).
- BALDWIN, S. E., *Young Man and the Law* (Macmillan Co., 1924).
- BARNARD, J. L., *Getting a Living* (Franklin Publishing Co., 1921).
- BLACK, H. G., *Paths to Success* (D. C. Heath & Co., 1924).
- BLACKFORD, KATHERINE M., and NEWCOMB, ARTHUR, *The Job, the Man, the Boss* (Blackford Publishing Co., 1923).
- , *The Right Job; How to Choose, Prepare for, and Succeed in It* (Doubleday, Page & Co., 1924).
- BLAKE, MAYBELLE, *Guidance for College Women* (D. Appleton & Co., 1926).
- BOUGHNER, GENEVIEVE, *Women in Journalism* (D. Appleton & Co. 1926).
- BRANDEIS, L. D., *Business, a Profession* (Small, Maynard & Co., 1925).
- BREWSTER, E. T., *Vocational Guidance for the Professions* (Rand McNally & Co., 1917).
- CHURCH, A. H., *The Making of an Executive* (D. Appleton & Co., 1923).

- DOXSEE, H. M., *Getting Into Your Life Work* (Abingdon Press, 1923).
- ERNST, C. H., *What Shall I Be?* (D. Appleton & Co., 1924).
- EVANS, O. D., *Educational Opportunities for Young Workers* (Macmillan Co., 1926).
- FILENE, CATHERINE, *Careers for Women* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1926).
- FLEMING, W. B., *Guide Posts to Life Work* (Abingdon Press, 1924).
- FREDERICK, J. G., *The Great Game of Business* (D. Appleton & Co., 1920).
- FRYER, DOUGLAS, *Vocational Self-Guidance* (Longmans, Green & Co., 1926).
- GALLOWAY, LEE, *Office Management* (Ronald Press Co., 1918).
- GILES, F. M., and GILES, I. K., *Vocational Civics* (Macmillan Co., 1919).
- GOWAN, E. B., and WHEATLEY, W. A., *Occupations* (Ginn & Co., 1916).
- HALL, H. J., and BUCK, M. M. C., *Handicrafts for the Handicapped* (Moffat, Yard & Co., 1916).
- HALL, S. R., *How to Get a Position and How to Keep It* (Funk & Wagnalls Co., 1925).
- HATCHER, O. L., *Occupations for Women* (Southern Woman's Educational Alliance, Atlanta, Georgia, 1927).
- HAWKSWORTH, HALLAM, *What Are You Going to Be?* (Century Co., 1924).
- HAYS, H. M., *Doctor and Patient* (Cornhill Publishing Co., 1922).
- HEMINGWAY, A. T., *How to Make Good* (Gregg Publishing Co., 1923).
- HOERLE, H. C., and SALTZBERG, F. B., *The Girl and the Job* (Henry Holt & Co., 1919).
- HOLLINGWORTH, H. L., *Vocational Psychology* (D. Appleton & Co., 1916).
- , *Judging Human Character* (D. Appleton & Co., 1922).
- HORTON, DOUGLAS, *Out into Life* (Abingdon Press, 1924).
- HUNGERFORD, EDWARD, *The Romance of a Great Store* (Robert M. McBride & Co., 1922).

- JACKSON, B. B., and others, *Opportunities of Today for Boys and Girls* (Century Co., 1921).
- JACKSON, W. M., *What Men Do* (Macmillan Co., 1925).
- JOHNSON, J. F., *We and Our Work* (American Viewpoint Society, 1923).
- KILDUFF, E. J., *How to Choose and Get a Better Job* (Harper & Bros., 1921).
- , *Private Secretary, His Duties and Opportunities* (Century Co., 1924).
- LEE, J. M., *Opportunities in the Newspaper Business* (Harper & Bros., 1919).
- LEIGH, RUTH, *The Human Side of Retail Selling* (D. Appleton & Co., 1921).
- , *Elements of Retailing* (D. Appleton & Co., 1923).
- LEUCK, M. S., *Fields of Work for Women* (D. Appleton & Co., 1926).
- LORD, C. S., *The Young Man and Journalism* (Macmillan Co., 1922).
- LYON, L. S., *Making a Living* (Macmillan Co., 1926).
- MACKINTOSH, C. H., *Creative Selling* (D. Appleton & Co., 1923).
- MAVERICK, L. A., *The Vocational Guidance of College Students*, Harvard Studies in Education, Vol. 8 (Harvard University Press, 1926).
- MAXWELL, WILLIAM, *Training of a Salesman* (J. B. Lippincott Co., 1919).
- MERTON, H. W., *How to Choose the Right Vocation* (Funk & Wagnalls Co., 1917).
- PARSONS, FRANK, *Choosing a Vocation* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1909).
- PEARSON, F. B., *The Teacher* (Charles Scribner's Sons, 1921).
- PLATT, R. H., editor, *The Book of Opportunities* (G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1927).
- PROCTOR, W. M., *Educational and Vocational Guidance* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1925).
- REED, ANNA YEOMANS, *Junior Wage Earners* (Macmillan Co., 1920).
- RICHARDS, CLAUDE, *The Man of Tomorrow* (Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1917).

- RODGER, ESCA G., *Careers* (D. Appleton & Co., 1928).
- ROSE, R. F., *How to Become a Private Secretary* (Funk & Wagnalls Co., 1917).
- ROSENGARTEN, WILLIAM, *Choosing Your Life Work* (McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1924).
- SMITH, H. L., *Your Biggest Job, School or Business* (D. Appleton & Co., 1920).
- SPIPKER, J. B., *Real Estate Business as a Profession* (D. Appleton & Co., 1923).
- TIMMINS, CLARK, *Selling Real Estate* (D. Appleton & Co., 1927).
- TOLAND, E. D., *Choosing the Right Career* (D. Appleton & Co., 1925).
- TUFTS, J. H., *Education and Training for Social Work* (Russell Sage Foundation, 1923).
- WANGER, RUTH, *What Girls Can Do* (Henry Holt & Co., 1926).
- WEAVER, E. W., *Building a Career* (Association Press, 1922).
- , *Profitable Vocations for Girls* (A. S. Barnes & Co., 1919).
- , and BYLER, J. F., *Profitable Vocations for Boys* (A. S. Barnes & Co., 1919).
- WRIGHT, H. P., *Young Man and Teaching* (Macmillan Co., 1920).

APPENDIX VI

LIBRARY SCHOOLS

CALIFORNIA

- School of Librarianship, University of California
Berkeley, California, Sydney B. Mitchell, Director.
- Library School of the Los Angeles Public Library
Los Angeles, California. Marion Horton, Principal.
- Riverside Library Service School
Riverside, California. Charles F. Woods, Director.

GEORGIA

- Library School, Carnegie Library of Atlanta
Atlanta, Georgia. Tommie Dora Barker, Director.

ILLINOIS

- Advanced Graduate Library School, The University of Chicago
Chicago, Illinois. George Alan Works, Dean.
- University of Illinois Library School
Urbana, Illinois. Phineas Lawrence Windsor, Director.

MASSACHUSETTS

- Simmons College School of Library Science
Boston, Massachusetts. J. R. Donnelly, Director.

MICHIGAN

- Department of Library Science, University of Michigan
Ann Arbor, Michigan. William Warner Bishop, Director.

MISSOURI

- St. Louis Library School
St. Louis, Missouri. Arthur E. Bostwick, Director.

NEW YORK

- Library School, New York State College for Teachers
Albany, New York. Martha Caroline Pritchard, Director.
- Pratt Institute School of Library Science
Brooklyn, New York. Edward Francis Stevens, Director.
- Course in Library Science, University of Buffalo
Buffalo, New York. Dr. Augustus H. Shearer, Director.

School of Library Service, Columbia University
New York City. Charles C. Williamson, Director.
Library Science Course, Skidmore College
Saratoga Springs, New York, Katherine E. Schultz, Principal.
Syracuse University School of Library Science
Syracuse, New York. Wharton Miller, Director.

OHIO

School of Library Science of Western Reserve University
Cleveland, Ohio, Alice S. Tyler, Dean.

PENNSYLVANIA

School of Library Service, Drexel Institute
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, Anne Wallace Howland, Director.
Carnegie Library School
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. John H. Leete, Director.

VIRGINIA

Hampton Institute Library School
Hampton, Virginia. Florence Rising Curtis, Director.

WASHINGTON (STATE)

University of Washington Library School
Seattle, Washington. William Elmer Henry, Dean.

WISCONSIN

Library School of the University of Wisconsin
Madison, Wisconsin. Clarence Brown Lester, Director.

INSTITUTIONS OFFERING SUMMER COURSES IN LIBRARY SCIENCE

CALIFORNIA

Arcata
Humboldt State Teachers and Junior College
Riverside
Riverside Library Service School

COLORADO

Boulder
University of Colorado
Fort Collins
Colorado Agricultural College Library Summer School

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

Washington
George Washington University

FLORIDA

Gainesville

University of Florida

Tallahassee

Florida State College for Women

ILLINOIS

Chicago

University of Chicago

Normal

Illinois State Normal University

Urbana

University of Illinois Library School

INDIANA

Indianapolis

Indiana Library and Historical department, Summer School
for Librarians

Terre Haute

Indiana State Normal School

IOWA

Iowa City

State University of Iowa

KANSAS

Emporia

Kansas State Teachers College

KENTUCKY

Lexington

University of Kentucky

LOUISIANA

Baton Rouge

Louisiana State University

MARYLAND

Baltimore

Johns Hopkins University

MASSACHUSETTS

Boston

Simmons College School of Library Science

Fitchburg

Massachusetts Normal School

MICHIGAN

Ann Arbor

University of Michigan

East Lansing

Extension Division of State Library, in coöperation with
Michigan State College

MINNESOTA

Bemidji

Bemidji State Teachers College

Mankato

State Teachers College

Minneapolis

University of Minnesota

Saint Cloud

Teachers College

MISSOURI

Cape Girardeau

Southeast Missouri State Teachers College

Saint Louis

Saint Louis University

MONTANA

Dillon

Normal College of the University of Montana

NEW HAMPSHIRE

Durham

University of New Hampshire

NEW JERSEY

Ocean City

New Jersey Public Library Commission, Library Summer
School

NEW YORK

Albany

New York State College for Teachers, Library School

Buffalo

University of Buffalo Library Science Course

Chautauqua

Chautauqua School for Librarians

Geneseo

New York State Normal School

New York City

Columbia University School of Library Service

Fordham University

Syracuse

Syracuse University Library School

NORTH CAROLINA

Chapel Hill

University of North Carolina

NORTH DAKOTA

Valley City

State Teachers College

OHIO

Cleveland

Western Reserve University Senior Teachers College Summer
Session, Division of Library Science

OKLAHOMA

Norman

University of Oklahoma

Tahlequah

Northeastern State Normal School

OREGON

Ashland

Southern Oregon Normal School

Oswego

Marylhurst Normal

Eugene

University of Oregon

Portland

University of Oregon, Portland Session

PENNSYLVANIA

Harrisburg

State College

Pennsylvania State Library, Library Extension Division Sum-
mer School for Library Workers

Huntington

Juniata College Summer School of Education

Philadelphia

Drexel Institute Summer Library School

Temple University Summer School

SOUTH CAROLINA

Rock Hill

Winthrop College

TENNESSEE

Knoxville

University of Tennessee

Nashville

George Peabody College for Teachers

TEXAS

San Marcos

Southwest Texas State Teachers College

UTAH

Salt Lake City

University of Utah

VERMONT

Montpelier

Free Public Library Department

VIRGINIA

Richmond

University of Virginia

WASHINGTON (STATE)

Seattle

University of Washington

WISCONSIN

Eau Claire

State Normal School

Madison

Library School of the University of Wisconsin

Milwaukee

Milwaukee State Normal School

Oshkosh

Oshkosh Normal School

River Falls

State Normal School

Stevens Point

Central Wisconsin State Normal School

Whitewater

Whitewater Normal School

WYOMING

Laramie

University of Wyoming

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